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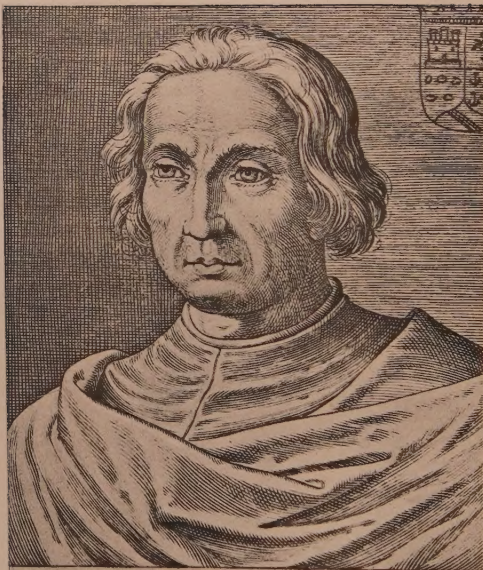
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THE
DISCOVERY AND COLONIZATION
OF NORTH AMERICA



CHRISTOPHORO COLOMBO

THE DISCOVERY AND COLONIZATION OF NORTH AMERICA

BY

JOHN FISKE

*With Illustrations
and Maps*

BOSTON, U.S.A.
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THE DISCOVERY



THE ATLANTIC OF THE ANCIENTS

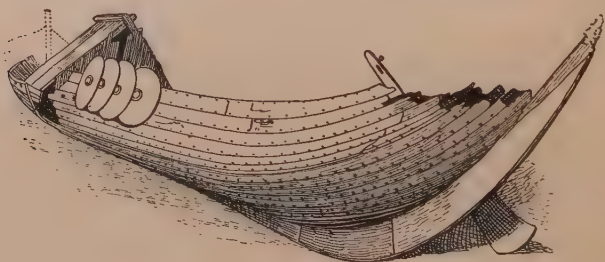
THE DISCOVERY

The Northmen. Columbus. Cabot and Vespucci. Magellan

The time when people from the civilized countries of the Old World first visited the shores of America is not positively known. Vague stories have been current of voyages to America made long ago by Phœnicians, by Irishmen, by Welshmen; some persons have thought that our western coast was visited by Chinese junks a thousand years before Columbus. It may perhaps have been so, but the evidence is very slender, and the stories have but little value. The case is quite different, however, when we come to the stories about the Northmen.

The Northmen were people in whom Americans have much reason for feeling interested. They were one of the finest and strongest races of men ever known in the world, and they were the ancestors of most of us. They

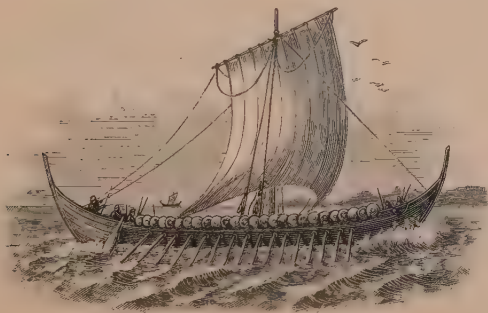
lived in the countries now known as Norway, Sweden, and Denmark, and the adjacent regions of northern Germany, and have been called by various names. Under the name of Angles, or English, they conquered and settled Britain in the fifth century; under the name of Danes they partly conquered it



VIKING SHIP RECENTLY DISCOVERED

again in the ninth. At the same time they conquered the northern part of Gaul, where they were known as Normans; and under this name they again invaded England in the eleventh century, formed an aristocracy there, and placed their great leader, William the Conqueror, upon the throne, which his descendant occupies to-day. They were skillful and daring sailors. From the

innumerable bays and fiords which indent the Scandinavian coasts their bold sea rovers, known as Vikings, or “men of the bay,” sailed forth in their little ships, not much larger than modern yachts, but strongly and neatly built, and urged along partly by oars



VIKING SHIP RESTORED

and partly by sails ; and in such little craft they visited all the coasts of Europe, disputed with the Saracens the supremacy of the Mediterranean, and even ventured far out into the trackless ocean without compass or aught save the stars for guides. Thus they settled in the Orkney and Shetland islands, and thence, about the year 874, they made their

way to Iceland, where they founded a thriving state. In 981 they discovered Greenland and planted a colony there, which lasted about five hundred years, when it was swept away by the Black Death.

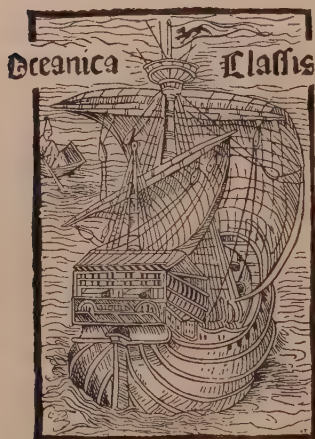
In the year 1000 Leif Ericson sailed southwesterly from Greenland and landed in a pleasant and well-wooded country, which he called Vinland because of its abundance of grapes. Other explorers followed him, of whom the most famous was Thorfinn Karlsefni. They had fights with the savage natives of Vinland, who, from the descriptions, are supposed to have been Eskimos. Trees are scarce in Greenland and Iceland, and voyages for timber seem to have been made from time to time to Vinland as late as the fourteenth century. But the Northmen had no idea that they had found a new world; they thought Greenland and Vinland were appendages of Europe. They had reached these places without crossing a wide ocean, and their voyages along these remote coasts attracted no serious attention in Europe, though the pope duly



RUINED CHURCH OF THE NORTHMEN IN GREENLAND

appointed a missionary bishop for Vinland. There are many reasons for supposing that Vinland may have been some part of the coast of New England, perhaps the region about Narragansett and Buzzard's bays; but it is possible that it may have lain as far north as Nova Scotia. It is not likely that the Northmen made any settlements in Vinland. Where they did settle, as in Greenland, they have left abundant remains of ruined houses and churches. No such vestiges have been found on the coasts of Nova Scotia or New England. The stone building at Newport, which has made so much talk, is

undoubtedly a windmill built on the estate of Benedict Arnold, governor of Rhode Island, after the pattern of one with which he had been familiar near his old home in England. The inscription on Dighton Rock is apparently



CARAVEL OF FIFTEENTH CENTURY

an Indian inscription similar to those found in New Mexico and elsewhere. There is no evidence of the visits of the Northmen to America except their own Icelandic records; and the truth of these there is no good reason for doubting.

It was a long time after the year 1000 before the people of Europe turned their attention to distant maritime enterprises. By and by the East India trade became a source of wealth to many European cities, especially to such as Genoa, Pisa, and Venice, which kept great fleets upon the



VASCO DA GAMA

Mediterranean. The Italian cities produced a set of able navigators, who were also men of learning and high scientific attainments, and their services were often put at the disposal of any government which would furnish them with the means of carrying out their bold enterprises. Spain and Portugal were very desirous of finding a passage by sea all the way to India, so that they might rival the commerce of the Italian cities. Portugal took the lead in this work during the fifteenth century. Portuguese captains kept venturing farther and farther down the west coast of Africa until at last, in 1497, Vasco da Gama rounded the Cape of Good Hope and crossed the Indian Ocean to Hindustan. But several years before this it had occurred to Columbus that, since the earth is round like a ball, the easiest way to get to India would be to strike out boldly to the west and sail straight across the Atlantic Ocean. Learned men had long known that the earth is round, but people generally did not believe it, and it had not occurred to anybody that such a voyage would



SARCOPHAGUS OF FERDINAND AND ISABELLA

be practicable. People were afraid of going too far out into the ocean. A ship which disappears in the offing seems to be going downhill; and many people thought that if they were to get too far downhill they could not get back. Other notions as absurd as this were entertained, which made people dread the "Sea of Darkness," as the Atlantic was often called. Accordingly Columbus found it hard to get support for his scheme. At length, in 1492, Queen Isabella of Spain fitted out an expedition for him, consisting of three little vessels, only one of which had a deck.

Early in October of that year, after a ten weeks' voyage, he discovered the islands of San Salvador and Haiti and returned to Spain to tell of his success.



MAP OF THE FIRST VOYAGE OF COLUMBUS

About fifteen years before this Columbus seems to have visited Iceland, and some have supposed that he then heard about the voyages of the Northmen, and was thus led to his belief that land would be found by sailing

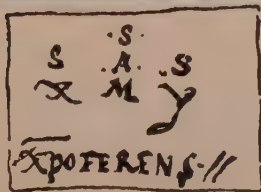


QUEEN ISABELLA

west. He may have thus heard about Vinland and may have regarded the tale as confirming his theory. That theory, however, was based upon his belief in the rotundity of the earth. The best proof that he was not seriously influenced by the Norse voyages, even if he had heard of them, is the fact that he never used them as an argument. In persuading people to furnish money for his enterprise, it has been well said that an ounce of



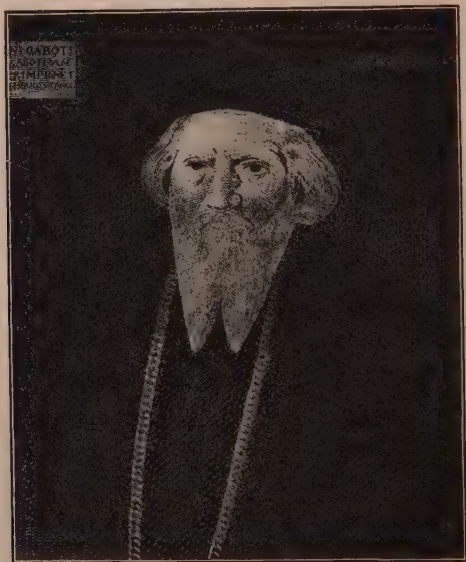
CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS AND
HIS SIGNATURE



Vinland would have been worth a pound of talk about the shape of the earth.

Columbus made three other voyages, in the course of which he discovered other islands, and in 1498 sailed along the northern coast of South America. He supposed these lands to be a part of Asia and called their swarthy inhabitants Indians, a name which will always cling to them, though really they are no more Indians than we are Chinese. Columbus made a mistake in calculating the circumference of the earth and got it only about half as great as it really is, thus leaving out the Pacific Ocean and the width of the American continent. According to this calculation, when he had crossed the Atlantic he seemed to have sailed just far enough to reach Asia. He died in 1506, without even suspecting that he had discovered a new world.

The example of Columbus was soon followed by other skillful and learned navigators. John Cabot and his son Sebastian were Venetians in the employ of Henry VII, king of England. In 1497 they sailed due west from England to



SEBASTIAN CABOT

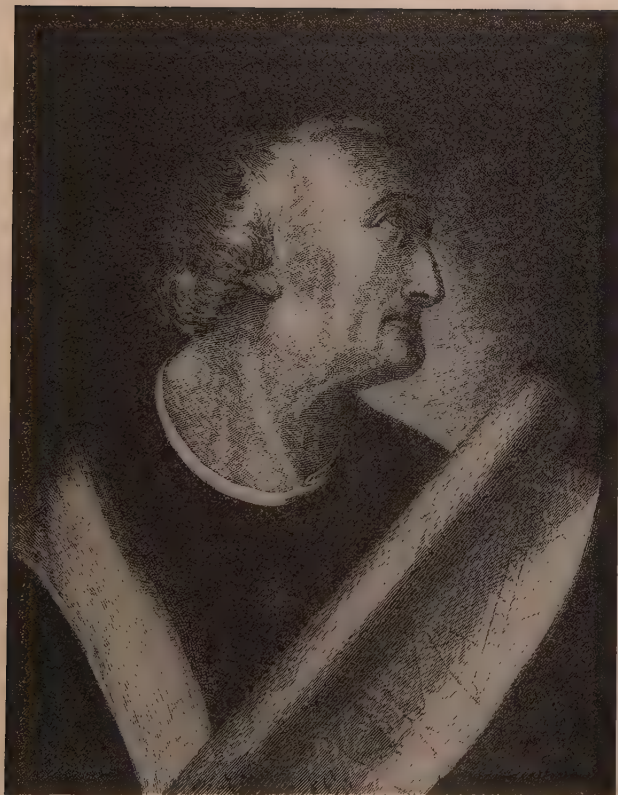
Newfoundland and Labrador, and were thus the discoverers of the North American continent. Next year the father died, and Sebastian made another voyage, in which he followed the American coast as far south as Florida.

Amerigo Vespucci was a Florentine in the service of Spain. It is not quite certain

whether he made his first voyage to America in 1497 or in 1499. It is certain that in the latter year he discovered Brazil and followed the coast down to within about a hundred miles of the Strait of Magellan. People would naturally have supposed this coast to be that of the great Asiatic peninsula which has been known since ancient times as Farther India. But Vespucci's voyage showed that this was a very different-looking coast, and that it extended much farther to the south. It was accordingly supposed that this must be the coast of the new Asiatic peninsula to the eastward of Farther India. In a map made in those days Asia is depicted with four great peninsulas jutting southward, — first Arabia, then Hindustan, then Farther India, then America. It was natural that Vespucci's name should be given to that part of the world which he really did discover; and it was not strange that this name, first applied to the southern part of the New World, which for a long time was better known than the northern, should by and by come to be applied to the

whole. Some people have talked and written very foolishly about the brave and high-minded Vespucci, as if he had laid claim to honor not justly due him; as if it were through some fraud of his that the New World came to be called America instead of Columbia. But Vespucci was in nowise responsible for this, and it would not have occurred to any one at that time to name any country after Columbus, because he was not supposed to have discovered a new country, but only a new way of getting to an old one. But if the great Genoese sailor has not had full justice done him on the map, he will forever rank as the most illustrious explorer of all time. His voyage in 1492 was a scientific triumph of the first order; and in view of its historic consequences it must be called the most important event since the birth of Christ.

The work of discovering the New World was not yet completed. The first success of Columbus made Portugal very jealous of Spain. The two kingdoms were ready to quarrel over their anticipated good fortune, each wishing



Amerigo
Vesputi

AMERIGO VESPUCCI AND HIS SIGNATURE

to get the whole. The affair was referred to Pope Alexander VI, who drew an imaginary line through the Atlantic Ocean from north to south, three hundred and seventy leagues west of the Azores, and decreed that all heathen lands which should be discovered west of this line should

belong to Spain, and all east of it to Portugal. The coast of Brazil happens to come east of this line, and thus fell to Portugal, while all the rest of America

fell to Spain. Portuguese ships, after once

crossing the Indian Ocean, kept sailing farther to the east and into the Pacific, until it began to become clear that the coast discovered by Vespucci was not the coast of an Asiatic peninsula, but that there was water to the west of it; how much water nobody knew or dreamed. In 1513 Vasco Nuñez de Balboa first saw the Pacific Ocean from the



MAP OF THE DIVISION OF
THE WORLD MADE IN 1494

top of a lofty hill in the Isthmus of Darien. He naturally called it the South Sea, and it was known by that name for a very long time. There now came upon the scene the heroic man who finished what Columbus had begun, and showed that America was really a new world. This was Ferdinand Magellan, a native of Portugal, but engaged in the service of Spain. In dividing things between these two kingdoms the pope had not said anything about the opposite side of the globe. Magellan had heard of the Molucca Islands which might be reached by sailing eastward. He was authorized to reach them by sailing westward, and thus secure them for Spain. This gave him a chance to settle forever the question of the earth's rotundity. As long as America was supposed to be Asia, Columbus was thought to have settled it. But now it began to look as if America had nothing to do with Asia, and there was thus fresh room for doubt, which could only be finally cleared away by circumnavigating the globe. On this tremendous expedition Magellan started in

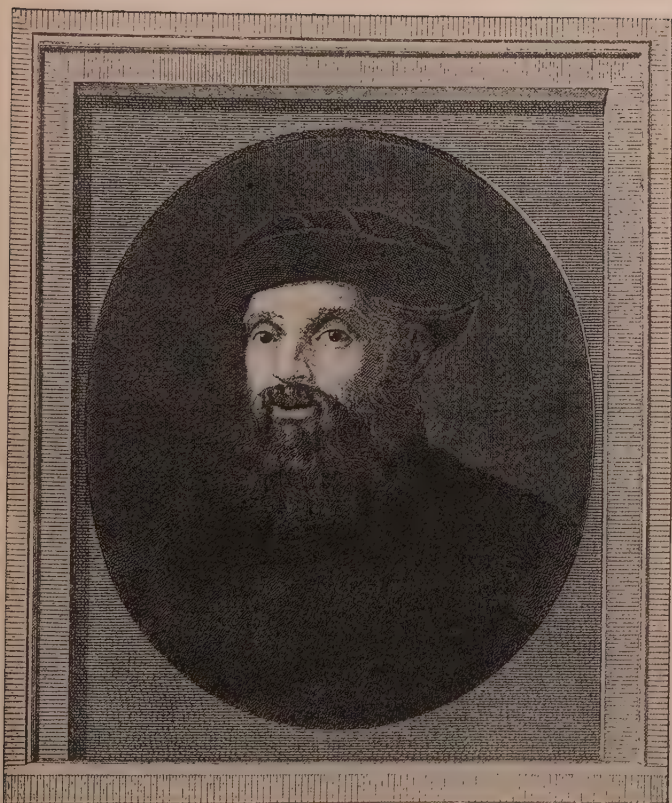


VASCO NUÑEZ DE BALBOA

1519 with five small vessels. Crossing the Atlantic, he sailed down the coast of South America searching for a westerly passage, until he found the strait which bears his name. Passing through this, he came out upon the ocean whose waves seemed to him so smooth and pleasant that he named it Pacific. Now his trials began. As they sailed month after month alone on this wide waste of waters, without seeing trace of land or sail, the courage of many gave out. Every day, they thought, showed more clearly that the earth was not round after all, but that their captain was taking them out over an endless flat space, away from the world entirely. Their food gave out and their sufferings were dreadful, but they had come so far that it was hopeless to turn back, and so, in spite of starvation and mutiny, Magellan kept on, and after such a record of endurance as the world has never seen surpassed, he reached the Ladrone Islands and met with traders who had come there by sailing eastward from Sumatra. Then Magellan knew that he had proved the earth to be

round. He was soon after slain in a skirmish with some savages, but Elcano, his lieutenant, took possession of the Moluccas and kept on across the Indian Ocean and around the Cape of Good Hope, reaching Spain in the autumn of 1522 with only one of his five ships afloat.

This wonderful voyage showed the true position of America with reference to the rest of the world. But it was a long time before much was known about North America except a few points on the Atlantic coast. It is barely a hundred years since our Pacific coast was first carefully explored by the famous Captain Cook. It is less than a century and a half since the northwestern corner of our continent was discovered and taken possession of by the navigator Behring, who was in the service of Russia. In the sixteenth century the attention of the Spaniards was confined to conquering the Indian kingdoms in Mexico and Peru, to colonizing various parts of South America and the West Indies, and to mining for precious metals, using the Indians as slaves and treating them with diabolical cruelty.



FERDINAND MAGELLAN

Spain was then the strongest nation in the world, but France and England were her eager rivals, and neither paid any heed to the papal decree which assigned to her the dominion over North America.

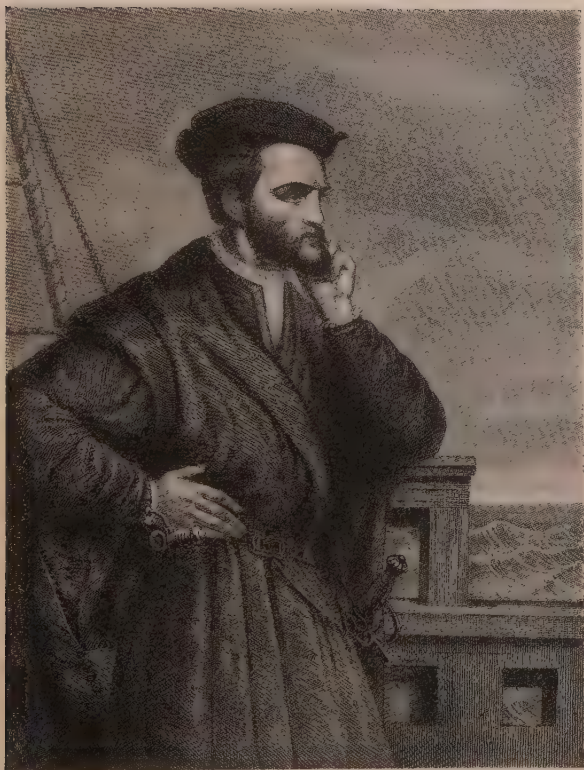
FRENCH PIONEERS

FRENCH PIONEERS

Cartier and Ribault. Champlain. The North American Indians

France was first in the field. King Francis I sent word to the Emperor Charles V "that since he and the king of Portugal had divided the earth between themselves, without giving him a share of it, he should like them to show him our father Adam's will, in order to know if he had made them his sole heirs." Meanwhile he should feel at perfect liberty to seize upon all he could get. The French had already begun to share with the English in the fisheries which were begun upon the banks of Newfoundland immediately after Cabot's voyage and have been kept up ever since. As early as 1506 fishermen from Brittany discovered and named the island of Cape Breton and began making rude charts of the Gulf of St. Lawrence. For a century the Newfoundland fisheries were almost the only link between

the North American coast and Europe. In 1524 Francis I sent the Florentine navigator Verrazzano on a voyage of discovery. Verrazzano entered New York harbor and Narragansett Bay, and sailed northward along the coast as far as the fiftieth parallel. Ten years later came Jacques Cartier, who explored and named the great river St. Lawrence and the site of Montreal. In 1540–1543 an unsuccessful attempt was made by the Sieur de Roberval, aided by Cartier, to establish a French colony in Canada. Then the French became so much occupied with their wars of religion that they gave little thought to America for the next half century. During this period, however, there was one attempt at colonization which grew directly out of the wars of religion. The illustrious Protestant leader Coligny conceived the plan of founding a Huguenot state in America, and in 1562–1564 such a settlement was begun in Florida, at Fort Caroline on the St. Johns River, under the lead of Jean Ribault and René de Laudonnière ; but in the autumn of the latter year it



JACQUES CARTIER

Jac Cartier

was wiped out in blood by the ferocious Pedro Menendez. That Spanish captain landed in Florida and laid the foundations of St. Augustine, the oldest town in the United States. He then attacked the French colony, took it by surprise, and butchered everybody, men, women, and children, some seven hundred in all; a very few escaped to the woods, and after various adventures made their way back to France. The government of Charles IX was so subservient to Spain that it did not resent this atrocious act, although it was perpetrated in time of peace. But a private gentleman, named Dominique de Gourgues, who does not seem to have been a Huguenot, took it upon himself to avenge his slaughtered countrymen. Having fitted out a secret expedition at his own expense and with the aid of a few friends, he sailed for Florida, surprised the Spaniards at Fort Caroline, slew them every one, and returned to France.

It was not until the religious wars had been brought to an end by Henry IV that the French succeeded in planting a colony in

America. They now began to be interested in the northwestern fur trade as well as in the Newfoundland fisheries; and in 1603 the Sieur de Monts obtained permission to colonize a vast tract of land extending from New York harbor to Cape Breton, and known as Acadie, a name which gradually became restricted to the northeastern part of this region. A monopoly of the fur trade within these limits was granted by the king to a company of which de Monts was the head. The enterprise, so far as de Monts was concerned, was a failure; but one of his companions, Poutrincourt, succeeded in 1607 in establishing the first permanent French settlement in America at Port Royal in Nova Scotia. Another of the party, Samuel de Champlain, made a settlement at Quebec in the following year, and became the founder of Canada. Champlain was one of the most remarkable Frenchmen of his day, — a beautiful character, devout and high-minded, brave and tender. Like Columbus and Magellan, like Baker and Livingstone in our own time, he had the

*Champlain*

SAMUEL DE CHAMPLAIN

scientific temperament. He was an excellent naturalist, and he has left the best descriptions we have of the Indians as they appeared before they had been affected by contact with white men. Champlain explored our northeast coast very minutely, and gave to many places the names by which they are still known; as, for example, Mount Desert, which has kept its traditional French pronunciation, with the

accent on the final syllable. He was the first white man to sail on the beautiful lake which now bears his name, and he pushed his explorations so far into the interior as to discover lakes Ontario and Huron. He was made the first viceroy of Canada and held that position until his death in 1635, by which time the new colony had come to be large and flourishing. In 1611 Jesuit missionaries came over to convert the Indians and labored to that end with wonderful zeal and success. Missions were established as far inland as the Huron country, and the good priests often distinguished themselves as brave and intelligent explorers. The fur trade began to assume large dimensions and French rovers formed alliances with the Indian tribes in the neighborhood of the Great Lakes. The French usually got on well with the Indians; they knew how to treat them so as to secure their friendship; they intermarried with them and adopted many of their ways.

Nevertheless in one quarter the French offended the Indians and raised up for them-



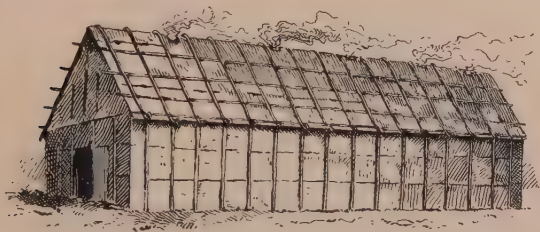
DEFEAT OF THE IROQUOIS BY CHAMPLAIN

A facsimile of an engraving published in 1613

selves a powerful enemy who had much to do with their failure to secure a permanent foothold in America. In the sixteenth century the territory bounded by the Rocky Mountains, the Great Lakes, the Atlantic Ocean, and the Gulf of Mexico seems to have been occupied by five varieties or races of Indians. These were: (1) in the northwest, beyond the Mississippi River, the Dakotas; (2) in the southwest, the Natchez; (3) in the south, the Mobilians, comprising the Choctaws, Cherokees, Creeks, Seminoles, etc.; (4) in the

north, from the Mississippi to the Atlantic coast, the Algonquins; (5) in the center of the Atlantic region, the Iroquois. Of these the Algonquins and Iroquois played by far the most important part in the development of American history. The Algonquins comprised such tribes as the Pequots, Mohicans, Narragansetts, and Wampanoags in New England; the Delawares, to the south of the Susquehanna; the Shawnees of the Ohio, the Miamis, Pottawatomies, Ojibways, and Ottawas. Of the Iroquois the most famous tribes were the so-called Five Nations dwelling in central New York; to the south of them were the Susquehannocks; the Eries lived on the southern shore of the lake which bears their name, and the northern shore was occupied by a tribe known as the Neutral Nation. To the north of these came the Hurons. One Iroquois tribe—the Tuscaroras—lay quite apart from the rest, in North Carolina; but in 1715 this tribe migrated to New York and joined the famous Iroquois league, which was henceforth known as the Six Nations.

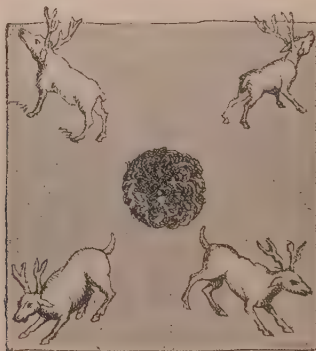
Between the Algonquins and the Iroquois were many important differences. They differed in their speech, in their modes of building their wigwams and fortifying their villages, and in their knowledge of agriculture. The Iroquois were superior to the Algonquins



LONG HOUSE OF THE IROQUOIS

and looked down upon them with immeasurable contempt. Of all the Iroquois the bravest in war and most formidable in numbers were the Five Nations,—the Mohawks, Oneidas, Onondagas, Cayugas, and Senecas. For ferocious cruelty they have scarcely been equaled by any other race of men known to history. Their confederated strength made them more than a match for all their rivals, and during the seventeenth century they became the

terror of the whole country from the Atlantic to the Mississippi and from Canada to North Carolina. In 1649 they overwhelmed and nearly destroyed their kindred the Hurons, putting the Jesuit missionaries to death with



TOTEM OF THE FIVE NATIONS

frightful tortures; then they exterminated the Neutral Nation. In 1655 they massacred most of the Eries and incorporated the rest among their own numbers; and in 1672, after a terrible war of twenty years, they effected the ruin of the Susquehannocks. While they were doing these things they were also carrying the firebrand and tomahawk among the

Algonquins in every direction. They drove the Ottawas westward into Michigan, laid waste the country of the Illinois, and reduced the Shawnees and Delawares to the condition of vassals. There is no telling how far they

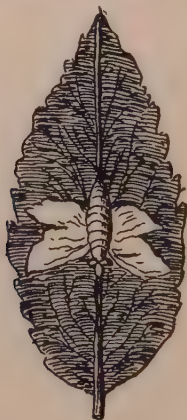


TOTEM OF THE HURONS

might have carried this career of conquest if the white man had not appeared upon the scene.

It was these formidable Iroquois whom the French at the very outset made their enemies. It was natural that Champlain should court the friendship of the Algonquin tribes on the St. Lawrence. He undertook to defend them

against their hereditary foes, and accordingly in 1609 he attacked the Mohawks near Ticonderoga and won an easy victory over savages who had never before seen a white man or



TOTEM OF THE ILLINOIS

heard the report of a musket. But the victory was a fatal one for the French. From that time forth the Iroquois hated them with implacable hatred, and when the English came these powerful savages entered into alliance with them. Even alone the Iroquois were capable of doing enormous damage to the Canadian settlements. In 1689 they even

attacked Montreal and roasted and devoured their prisoners in full sight of the terror-stricken town. This hostility of the Iroquois kept the French away from the Hudson River until it was too late for them to contend successfully for the mastery of New York. But for this circumstance the French might have succeeded in possessing New York and thus separating the New England colonies from those in the south.

THE ENGLISH IN VIRGINIA

THE ENGLISH IN VIRGINIA

Sir Walter Raleigh. London and Plymouth companies. John Smith. Lord Delaware. Sir Thomas Dale. Tobacco and slavery. The government. Fall of the London Company. Virginia under Charles I. The Palatinate of Maryland. Virginia and Maryland. Virginia under Charles II. Bacon's Rebellion

As John Cabot had discovered the North American continent for the English, they claimed it as their property; but many years elapsed before they came to take possession. From the reign of Henry VII to that of Elizabeth their attention was absorbed by affairs at home. During Elizabeth's reign the great struggle between Catholic and Protestant assumed the form of an international contest in which the gigantic power of Spain was pitted against England and the Netherlands, while France was divided within itself. In 1588 the defeat of the Invincible Armada marked the overthrow of Spanish supremacy and the triumph of Protestantism. England

had prepared the way for this glorious victory by training up such a set of naval captains as has never been surpassed in any age or country. The most famous of these were Sir Francis Drake, Sir Martin Frobisher, Sir John Hawkins, Sir Thomas Cavendish, Sir Humphrey Gilbert, Lord Howard of Effingham, and Sir Walter Raleigh. They began as buccaneers and raiders upon the Spanish possessions in all parts of the globe; they ended as colonizers; while from first to last they were explorers. Drake and Cavendish carried the British flag into the Pacific, visited the coast of California, and circumnavigated the earth. Frobisher, in quest of a northwestern passage to India, entered the Arctic Ocean and explored a part of it. Hawkins — to our shame and sorrow in later days — began the practice of kidnapping negroes on the Guinea coast and selling them as slaves. At length Gilbert and his half-brother Raleigh attempted to found colonies in America. Gilbert was wrecked and perished in the sea. Raleigh obtained from the queen a grant of the vast



Elizabeth R

QUEEN ELIZABETH

region included between the thirty-fourth and forty-fifth parallels of latitude, which the maiden queen called, in honor of herself, Virginia. For several years Raleigh worked earnestly to establish a colony somewhere in this region, sending out a number of expeditions under skillful captains, though arduous duties at home prevented his going in person. At one moment, in 1585–1587, he seemed on the point of succeeding with a settlement which had been begun on Roanoke Island; but the Invincible Armada absorbed too much attention. The colony was inadequately supported and perished miserably. Nevertheless the work which Raleigh did was so important in directing the energies of the English toward colonizing North America that he must be ranked first in the long series of great men who have founded the United States.

After having lost £40,000 in these attempts, and finding the task too great for his unaided energies, Raleigh assigned all his interests in Virginia to a joint-stock company of merchants and adventurers. For some years nothing



A stylized, cursive signature of Sir Walter Raleigh, written in dark ink. The signature is fluid and elegant, with long, sweeping lines.

SIR WALTER RALEIGH

was accomplished; but at last in 1606 some of these same people, interested in Raleigh's schemes, organized two companies for settling and trading in America. These were known as the London and Plymouth companies. The region called Virginia was divided into two parts. The London Company was to control everything north of Florida as far as the fortieth parallel, while everything between this and Canada was to be controlled by the Plymouth Company. On New Year's Day, 1607, three

ships of the London Company sailed from the Downs, and on the 26th of April they reached Chesapeake Bay. At Jamestown they laid the



RUINS OF JAMESTOWN

foundations of the first permanent English colony in America. Besides the crews, which numbered thirty-nine, there were one hundred and five persons, of whom fifty-two were

classed as "gentlemen," the rest as mechanics and tradesmen. There seem to have been no farmers or persons skilled in agriculture. For the first year there were no women. Many of them entertained a vague hope of finding gold, and few of them had any idea how to go to work to found a colony. Their food gave out, the savages were unfriendly, and fever attacked them. In about four months half their number were dead. There can be little doubt that the colony would have perished like its predecessors, had it not been for the energy and determination of Captain John Smith.

This remarkable man was one of the most picturesque figures of his time. His adventures in various parts of the world, as recounted by himself, were so extraordinary that he has sometimes been accused, and perhaps with justice, of stretching the truth. He had a romantic temperament and was fond of hearing and telling wonderful stories; yet, after making all allowances, his career was very remarkable. He had been captured by Barbary pirates, left for dead on a battlefield in



JOHN SMITH

Jo Smith.

Hungary, sold into slavery in Turkey, and made his way on foot through the Russian wilderness. He was full of shifts and expedients, and in the early colony at Jamestown was the only man capable of taking the lead. He sailed up and down the coast, explored the great rivers, coaxed or bullied the Indians, and got supplies of food from them. A few houses were built and a few patches of ground were cleared and sowed with corn. But even Smith's energy found it hard to keep the colony in existence for two years.

In 1609 Lord Delaware was appointed governor of Virginia, and a new expedition was sent out, consisting of nine ships, with five hundred men under command of two worthy soldiers, Sir Thomas Gates and Sir George Somers. As they were nearing their destination they were "caught in the tail of a hurricane," and the good ship *Sea Venture*, with both the commanders on board, was driven far away from the rest and cast upon the Bermuda Islands. It has been supposed that it was this wreck of the *Sea Venture* which suggested

Shakespeare's "Tempest." Deprived of their leaders, the colonists reached Jamestown only to make confusion more hideous. They were a wretched set, for the most part the sweepings of English jails or ruffians picked up about the streets. When things were at their worst Smith met with an accident which made it necessary for him to return to England, and the Indians laid a plan for exterminating the colony. About this time Gates and Somers, having built a boat with their own hands and escaped from the Bermudas, arrived upon the scene and found the outlook so desperate that they decided to abandon the enterprise and take all the settlers back to England. Out of nearly five hundred only sixty were left alive, and stress of hunger had made some of them cannibals. On the 8th of June, 1610, they had actually embarked for home and sailed a little way down the James River, when Lord Delaware arrived with three well-manned ships and abundant supplies, and falling on his knees on the sandy beach thanked God for the relief of Virginia.



LORD DELAWARE

Lord Delaware was a man of energy. He built forts, defeated the Indians, and repressed disorders. But his health soon gave out, and the following spring he returned to England. His successor, Sir Thomas Dale, was a stern soldier, who set up gallows, pillory, and whipping post, and slew or humbled the evil doers till peace and decorum reigned throughout the little colony. The fortunate accident of a marriage between John Rolfe, a leading settler, and Pocahontas, a favorite daughter of the sachem Powhatan, secured for a time the friendship of the Indians. This was important, but something which Sir Thomas Dale did was far more important. Hitherto the system under which the colonists had lived was one of communism, — a system under which a few noisy simpletons in our time think every society ought to live. Land was owned in common, and whatever food any one raised, or whatever property was got by trading with the Indians, was thrown into a common stock, to be evenly distributed among the settlers. This system put a premium on laziness. The

task of supporting the colony was thrown upon a few industrious people, while the rest drank rum and made mischief. The sagacious Dale changed all this. Henceforth every man was to cultivate his own tract of land and bring two barrels and a half of corn to the public granary for public purposes; whatever he should raise or earn beyond this was to be his private property. The effect of this change was magical; even the lazy began to think it worth while to work, and crime was repressed more effectually than pillory and gallows could do it. When Dale returned to England in 1616 the colony had become fairly established. He had done more than any other man to found the great state of Virginia.

For the next three years the colony was governed in turn by the humane and upright George Yeardley and the shameless buccaneer Samuel Argall. In 1619 Yeardley again became governor, and that year was marked by two very notable events,—the introduction of negro slavery and the beginnings of a free popular government.



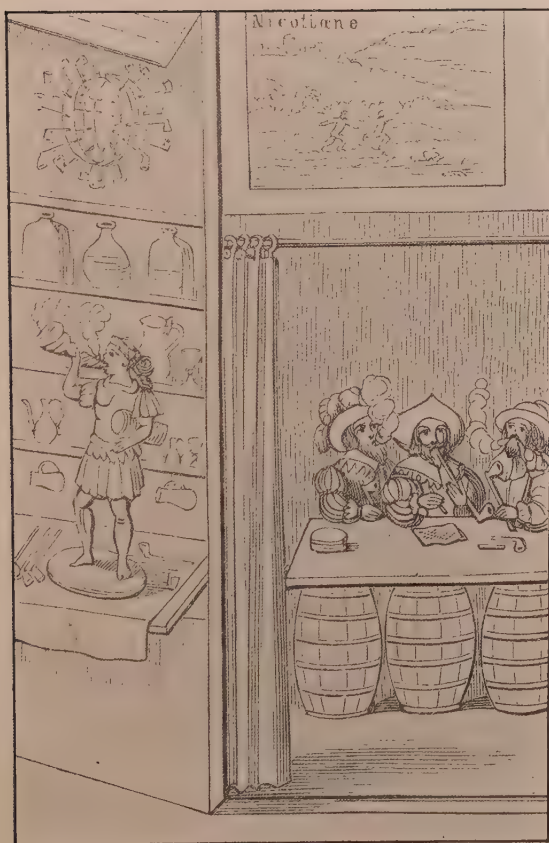
POCAHONTAS



A TYPICAL TOBACCO FIELD

For the production of tobacco the soil of Virginia is unsurpassed in the world. In 1612 its systematic cultivation was begun by John Rolfe, and the demand from Europe made this employment so profitable that by 1616 the settlers had begun to give almost exclusive attention to it. As soon as the wise measures of Dale had made Virginia a place where respectable people could live, thrifty planters began to come over by hundreds to raise tobacco and make their fortunes. In 1619 more than 40,000 pounds were shipped to England; by 1640 the average yearly export had reached 1,500,000 pounds; and by 1670 it

had reached 12,000,000 pounds. The rapid growth of this industry created a greater demand for labor than could possibly be supplied by free immigration; and hence it led to the introduction of slave labor. In August, 1619, there came in, says Rolfe, "a Dutch man of war that sold us twenty negars." In those days people had no more scruples of conscience in buying and selling black men than they had in buying and selling horses or cows; and the African slave trade thus begun was carried on for nearly two hundred years. At first, however, it did not go on so briskly as afterwards because a certain form of white slavery was still in vogue. When the prisons in England were cumbered with criminals, a clearance was sometimes effected by sending shiploads of them to Virginia to be sold into slavery for a term of years. Gypsies, vagabonds, and orphan children were kidnapped and disposed of in the same way. Such people were known as "indentured servants," because the terms and conditions of their servitude were prescribed by indentures, as in



A LONDON TOBACCO SHOP

From an old print

the case of apprentices in England. When after a while they got their freedom, those who were capable and enterprising sometimes acquired plantations and became respectable members of society; but the greater part either recruited the ranks of the criminal classes or went out to the frontier and led half-savage lives there. After the end of the seventeenth century there was but little more of this buying and selling of wretched white men. Work on the plantations was done entirely by negroes, and their numbers went on increasing until they became a source of anxiety to their masters, as is shown by many cruel laws in the statute book.

By July, 1619, there were four thousand white inhabitants in Virginia, distributed among eleven boroughs. The charter of the London Company was amended so as to limit the authority of the governor by a council and an assembly. The assembly was to consist of two burgesses or representatives from each borough, to be freely elected by the inhabitants. It soon came to be known as the



SEAL OF VIRGINIA

House of Burgesses, and was in fact a miniature House of Commons for the colony of Virginia. It could pass any laws for the government of the colony, provided they should not conflict with the laws of England,—a somewhat vague provision which, while it retained a veto power in the hands of the British government, at the same time allowed great freedom of legislation to the colonists. Thus Virginia, within a dozen years from the first settlement of Jamestown, became, to all intents and purposes, a self-governing community. In accordance with Yeardley's instructions, the first representative assembly ever

held in America met in the chancel of the little church at Jamestown on Friday, July 30, 1619.

Free government was a strange thing to obtain from such an obstinate and tyrannical sovereign as James I. The new charter, indeed, had been wrung from the king wholly against his will. The London Company had become a powerful corporation with more than one thousand stockholders, including fifty noblemen and some of the wealthiest merchants in the kingdom. Under its liberal leaders, Sir Edwin Sandys and Shakespeare's friend, the Earl of Southampton, it was beginning to be a most formidable power in politics. Its meetings, as the Spanish ambassador truly told James, were "the seminary to a seditious parliament"; but James needed no such warning. He made up his mind that the London Company must fall, and accordingly he accused it of mismanagement and brought suit against it in the courts. The judges were timid and time serving, as was often the case in those days, and the case was decided in



Charles I

KING CHARLES I

After the painting by Van Dyck

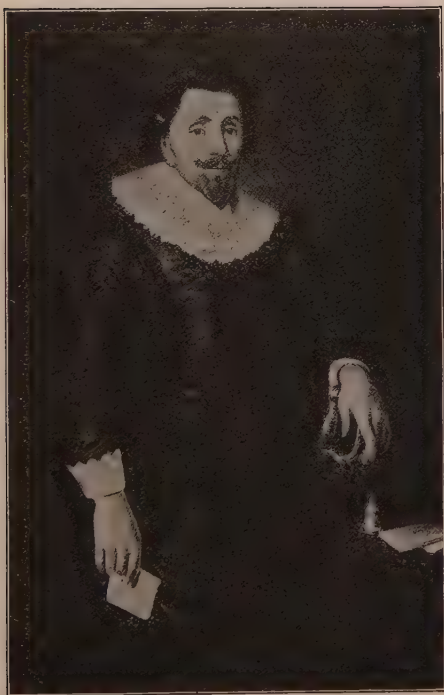
favor of the king. In the summer of 1624 the charter of the company was annulled, and James set to work with his own pen to write out a code of laws for Virginia. But while he was about it he died, in March, 1625, and his son Charles succeeded to the throne.

The legal basis on which the free government of Virginia had rested was now

destroyed, and the new king, Charles I, was just as unscrupulous and tyrannical as his father. But the death of James happened opportunely for the Virginians. Wishing to govern without parliaments, Charles naturally was at his wits' end to devise ways of getting money without summoning a parliament to grant funds for the expenses of government. Among other things he wished to get a monopoly of the tobacco trade, and this desire led him to deal courteously with the Virginians and to recognize their miniature parliament. In 1628 he directed the governor of Virginia to convene the House of Burgesses for the purpose of granting him such a monopoly; but the assembly vindicated its independence by higgling about the price, and the monopoly was not granted. After this the king found so much to occupy him at home in his chronic quarrel with the people that he was unable to interfere—with fatal effect in Virginia. In 1629 he sent over a wretched governor, Sir John Harvey, who not only put on airs and insulted the people but also stole the public money and

even went so far as to sell lands which were the private property of individual planters. This was more than human nature could bear, and in 1635 the Virginians deposed Sir John Harvey and appointed a provisional governor in his stead. This bold act enraged the king. He called it rebellion, refused to hear a word against the unjust ruler, and reinstated him in office; but after a short time things had come to such a pass with Charles that he deemed it prudent not to make too many enemies, and Harvey was recalled to England. In 1642, just as the thunderclouds of civil war were breaking over the mother country, Sir William Berkeley came over as governor, and was the most conspicuous figure in the history of Virginia for the next five-and-thirty years.

In 1630 an unwelcome visitor came to Virginia. This was the excellent George Calvert, a Yorkshire gentleman whom James I had raised to the peerage as Lord Baltimore. The fact that he was a Roman Catholic did not prevent his standing high in the good graces of the Stuart kings. He had been a member



George Calvert

GEORGE CALVERT

of the London Company, and after its dissolution Charles I had desired him to remain as one of a provisional council for the government of Virginia. But he had a different



HENRIETTA MARIA

aim in view. Catholics were made uncomfortable in England, and Lord Baltimore wished to found a colony in America where they might live unmolested. He had tried to settle such a colony in Newfoundland, but the enterprise failed. On his visit to Virginia in 1630 he was rudely treated as a Catholic and

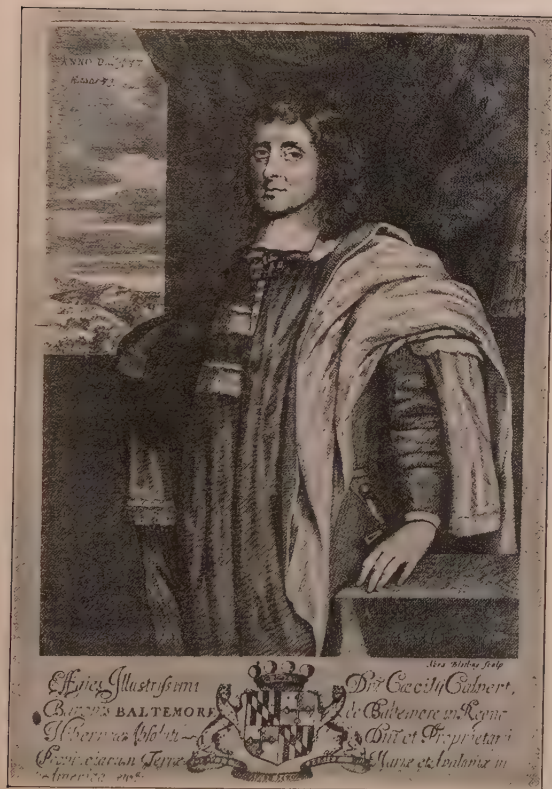
as an interloper. He sailed up Chesapeake Bay, explored part of the country north of the Potomac, and returning to England, obtained a grant of it from Charles I. In compliment to the queen Henrietta Maria, the country was called Maryland. The privileges granted to Lord Baltimore were the most extensive ever conferred upon a British subject, and amounted almost to making him an independent sovereign. Maryland was made a palatinate, or independent principality, only the feudal supremacy of the crown remaining. With this sole reservation, the lord proprietary had all the rights of a sovereign, and his powers and dignities were hereditary in his family. Parliament could not tax the Maryland colonists or legislate for them; they were also allowed to trade freely with all foreign ports.

Lord Baltimore died before he had founded a colony under this remarkable charter; but in 1634 the work was begun under his son and successor, Cecilius Calvert. The leaders of the emigration were mostly Roman Catholics,

but a majority of the settlers were Protestants and this made a policy of general toleration necessary. In view of the almost regal powers wielded by the lord proprietary, it was not easy for the Protestant settlers to oppress the Catholics; while, on the other hand, if the Catholic settlers had been allowed to annoy the Protestants, it would forthwith have raised such a storm in England as would have overwhelmed the lord proprietary and blasted his enterprise. The policy of toleration, which circumstances thus forced upon both ruler and people, soon began to draw men of all creeds to Maryland, and the colony grew rapidly in population and wealth. In particular, a great number of Puritans came, and presently, encouraged by the growing strength of their party in England, they began to show themselves intolerant of the Catholics and took measures to undermine their ascendancy in the colony. In this they were at first aided, but afterwards opposed, by the action of Virginia.

From the first the Virginians were indignant at the grant to Lord Baltimore because

it took away from them a territory which they regarded as rightfully their own. But in 1634 they had Sir John Harvey on their hands and were in no condition to pick too many quarrels with the king's government. There was one Virginia gentleman, however, who had a claim which he was in no wise disposed to yield. This was William Clayborne, who had settled at Kent Island in the Chesapeake and had resisted the Maryland settlers with armed force. In 1634 he was defeated in a little naval fight on the Potomac River and driven from Kent Island. But he nursed his wrath, and in 1645, while the great rebellion was at its height in England, he invaded Maryland and succeeded for a moment in overturning the proprietary government. His success was due to his having made himself a leader of the Puritan party; but this turned against him the Virginians and their Cavalier governor, Sir William Berkeley. From the beginning the religion of Virginia had been that of the established church, and although many Puritans had settled in that colony since 1619,



CECILIVS CALVERT



PROPRIETARY COINS

From photographs of the originals in the library of the Maryland Historical Society

they were never welcome there. Berkeley now took sides against Clayborne and the government of the Calverts was reëstablished in Maryland. But the contest was not yet ended.

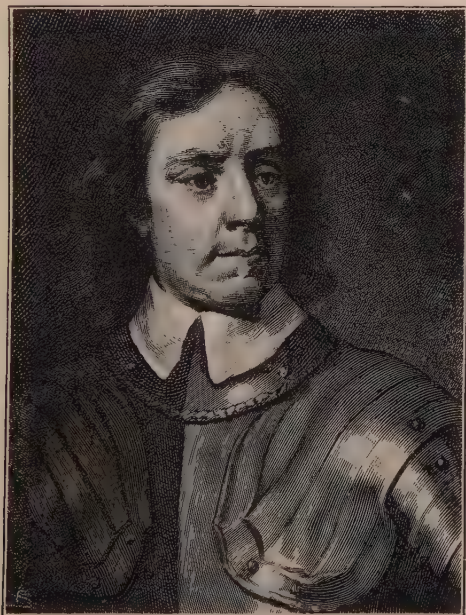
In January, 1649, King Charles was beheaded. It was now the Puritans who were uppermost in England, while it was the king's friends who were seeking to better their fortunes by leaving the country. Many of these Cavaliers came to Virginia, and while they were coming the Puritans in that colony were leaving it and flocking into Maryland. Thus, as Virginia was given up more and more to the Cavaliers, the Puritan party increased in Maryland until it made another attempt to get control of the government, again under

the lead of Clayborne. On the 25th of March, 1654, a bloody battle was fought near the site of Annapolis, and the Puritans were victorious. But their triumph was short-lived. In 1658 the death of Cromwell deprived them of their chief support and the government of the Calvert family was again restored.

During the reigns of Charles II and James II the career of Maryland was peaceful; but on the accession of William and Mary new laws enacted by Parliament against Catholics annulled the charter of the Calverts and their government suddenly fell to the ground. From 1692 to 1714 Maryland was ruled by governors appointed by the crown. In the latter year the fourth Lord Baltimore turned Protestant and his proprietary rights were revived. Maryland remained a sort of hereditary monarchy until, in 1776, the rule of the sixth Lord Baltimore was terminated by the Declaration of Independence.

In spite of her dislike of Puritans, Virginia submitted gracefully to Oliver Cromwell, by whom she was allowed to choose her own

governors. In 1652 Sir William Berkeley, after ten years in office, was succeeded by a

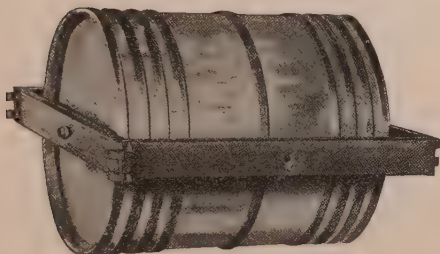


Oliver Cromwell

OLIVER CROMWELL

governor chosen by the House of Burgesses. In 1660, when the Stuart dynasty was restored to the throne in the person of Charles II, the

Burgesses shrewdly elected Berkeley again to be their governor, and the king confirmed him. Berkeley was a fine gentleman of the old school, an aristocrat every inch of him, a man of velvet and gold lace, a gallant soldier, an author whose plays were performed on the London stage, a devoted husband, a chivalrous friend, and withal a bigoted upholder of kingship and a stern and merciless judge. Before the end of his rule the little colony of John Smith had become a considerable state. In 1670 the population numbered forty thousand souls, and the tobacco crop had become a source of great wealth. There were no large towns. The planters lived apart on their vast estates on the banks of the broad creeks and rivers with which the country is intersected. For the most part, they had their own wharfs, where they dealt directly with European traders, shipping their cargoes of tobacco in exchange for imported merchandise. Hence there were very few manufactures in the colony, few merchants, few schools, few roads. Each planter on his estate was like a lord



TOBACCO HOGSHEAD READY FOR ROLLING

From a model in the National Museum at Washington

surrounded by dependents, and the state of society was very simple, while at the same time there was considerable luxury and elegance.

During this period a great many gentlemen of the Cavalier party came and settled in Virginia. Among them were the ancestors of the most famous Virginians engaged in the American Revolution, such as Washington, Jefferson, Patrick Henry, the Randolphs, the Lees, Madison, Mason, and Pendleton. From 1650 to 1670 these men came in such numbers as to give a well-defined character to Virginian society.

In spite of this the foolish and wicked Charles II treated the Virginians little better

than if they had been his enemies. Laws and regulations interfering with their trade kept them in a chronic state of discontent, till at length in 1673 the king capped the climax by granting the whole country to two of his favorites, Lords Arlington and Culpepper, as coolly as if it were all a wilderness without any white inhabitants.

Even with a king to back them, it was not easy for two men to take possession of a country with forty thousand inhabitants, and this wonderful grant came to nothing; but it aroused fierce indignation throughout the colony. While affairs were in this inflammable state the Indians became troublesome. In the early days of the colony they had threatened its very existence. They had slain four hundred people in a fearful massacre in 1622; and in 1644 they had again taken the warpath, but had been completely vanquished by Berkeley. Now in 1675 they rose in arms again and began burning and laying waste the outlying plantations and murdering their inhabitants. But Berkeley was now afraid to

call out the military force of the colony, lest in the prevailing disaffection it might be turned against himself. At length, after nearly four hundred scalps had been taken by the savages, the people raised a small volunteer force, without authority from the governor, and put it under the leadership of Nathaniel Bacon, a young Englishman of good family and liberal education, who had lately come to Virginia. As Bacon marched against the Indians, Berkeley proclaimed him a rebel and started with a small force in pursuit of him. This conduct aroused the whole country to rebellion, and the governor was obliged not only to retreat but to issue writs for a general election and to promise a redress of grievances. Bacon was elected to the new assembly, and under his lead an eloquent memorial was sent to the king, recounting the oppressions under which his faithful subjects in Virginia had suffered. Once more Bacon marched against the savages, when in the midst of a brilliant campaign he learned that Berkeley had again proclaimed him a rebel. Leaving his work on the frontier,

he instantly marched upon Jamestown and took possession of the government, while Berkeley fled in dismay. A third time, after settling affairs at the capital, did Bacon set forth to overwhelm the Indians, and no sooner had he got out of sight than Berkeley came forward and resumed the administration of the colony. Again Bacon returned to Jamestown, captured the score of houses of which the capital consisted, and burned them to the ground, that the town might no longer afford a shelter to the tyrant. A few days afterwards he was seized with a malarial fever and died, and the rebellion forthwith collapsed for want of a leader. Twenty-two of his principal followers were tried by court martial and hanged as soon as sentence was pronounced. Charles II deemed it prudent to disavow this cruel conduct of Berkeley. The too zealous governor was recalled in disgrace; but the Virginians gained nothing by the rebellion. Their eloquent memorial passed unheeded. From Bacon's death to the Declaration of Independence was just a hundred years; and for all

that time the political history of Virginia is mainly the story of a protracted brawl between the governors appointed by the crown and the assemblies chosen by the people. Under such influences were the Virginians educated for the great part which they were to play in the American Revolution.

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THE DUTCH
IN NEW NETHERLAND

THE DUTCH IN NEW NETHERLAND

Founding of New Netherland. Its overthrow

The year 1609 is an interesting year to the student of American history. The summer of 1609 witnessed that fatal victory of Champlain over the Mohawks which set the strongest Indian power on the continent in deadly hostility to the French. At the same moment John Smith, on the upper waters of the Chesapeake, was holding friendly parley with a host of the same formidable savages in their bark canoes. The first Frenchman ever seen by these tawny lords of the New York wilderness came as an enemy, the first Englishman as a friend. It was in 1609 that Spain, after a fruitless struggle of more than forty years, consented to the independence of the Netherlands, so that the maritime energies of the Dutch were set free for the work of colonization in East and West. It was also in 1609

that Spain, by banishing a million of her most intelligent and industrious citizens on account of their Moorish origin, inflicted upon herself such a terrible wound that she was no longer able to compete with the other colonizing nations of Europe. It was now England,



HUDSON COAT OF ARMS

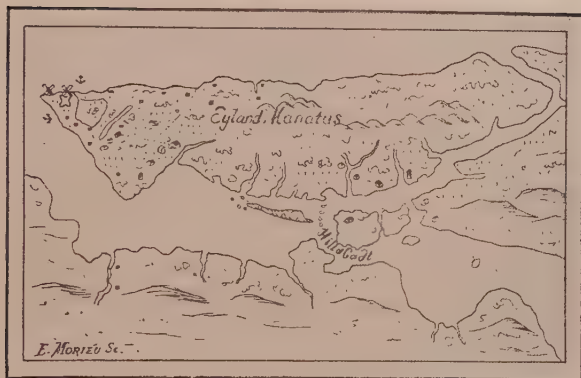
France, and Holland that were foremost in the race for colonial empire; and curiously enough it was in this same eventful year that the Dutch came to North America and interposed themselves between the French and the English in the commanding region ruled by

the Iroquois. In the summer of 1609 the great English sailor Henry Hudson, then in the service of the Dutch East India Company, sailed along the American coast in his little ship the *Half Moon*, entered the noble river which bears his name, and ascended it as far as the head of tide water at the site of Albany. He was looking for a northwest passage to India; what he found was the finest commercial and military situation on the Atlantic coast of North America, and the most direct avenue to the fur trade of the interior. By 1614 the Dutch had begun to settle on the island of Manhattan, on the southern end of which a small town soon grew up, which they called New Amsterdam. As their object was trade rather than agriculture, their posts were soon established along the Hudson River and towards the valley of the Mohawk, in the line of travel marked out by the traffic in peltries. In 1621 the Dutch West India Company was established to superintend the colonization of New Netherland. To encourage the founding of permanent estates, it was provided that



DUTCH MANOR HOUSE

any member of the company who should bring fifty settlers thither should be entitled to an estate with sixteen miles frontage on the Hudson River. This allowed room for about ten such estates on each bank between New Amsterdam and Fort Orange, which stood on the site of Albany. The right of holding manorial courts and other feudal privileges were attached to these grants; and thus was created the class of *patroons* — the Schuylers, Van Rensselaers, Courtlandts, and others —



EARLIEST KNOWN PLAN OF NEW AMSTERDAM, ABOUT 1640

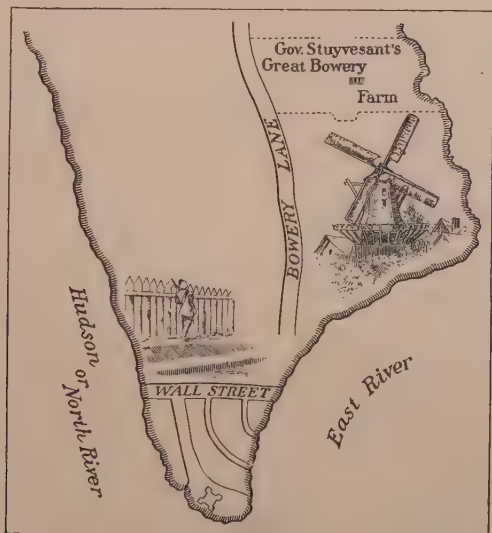
whose position was very much like that of a European nobility, as it was based upon landlordship and upon the exercise of a local territorial jurisdiction. The patroons brought many colonists with them, they acquired immense fortunes by trade, and their descendants have to this day continued to form a conspicuous and important element in New York society.

The colony founded by the Dutch in 1614 remained in their hands for just fifty years, at the end of which period the population had reached about eight thousand. Of this number about fifteen hundred were inhabitants

of New Amsterdam, a town which in those days was already cosmopolitan. The Dutch pursued a policy of toleration, and hence, in that cruel age of religious turmoil, they drew settlers from almost every country in Europe. It is said that in 1640 eighteen different languages were spoken on Manhattan Island.

The Dutch were fortunate enough to win the friendship of the powerful Iroquois, but with the Algonquins of Connecticut and Long Island their relations were far from peaceful. In 1643-1645 there was a terrible war with these tribes, which at times seemed to threaten even the existence of the Dutch colony. This war was partly due to the wretched misgovernment of the colony. There was no self-government here, as in Virginia. The settlers could neither make their own laws nor assess their own taxes. Ordinarily the governor, who was appointed by the West India Company, exercised supreme power, though occasionally he found it necessary to consult with an advisory board of from eight to twelve men who were chosen by the

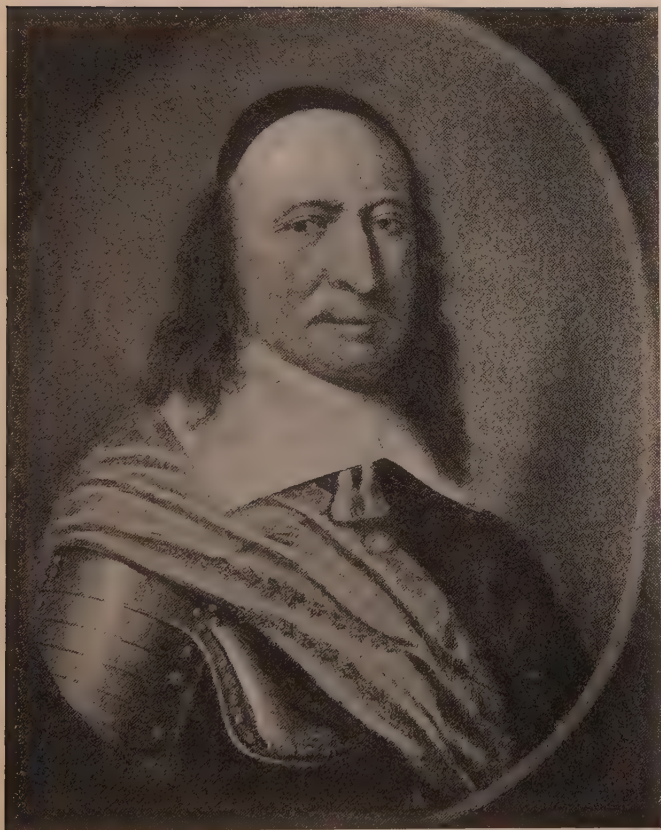
settlers. The fifth governor, William Kieft (1638–1647), was a foolish tyrant who nearly ruined the colony. Under his successor, the famous Peter Stuyvesant, who also was a



MAP OF THE CITY OF NEW AMSTERDAM
(NEW YORK) IN 1660

tyrant, but a sensible one, things went on more prosperously. During his administration the population and wealth of the colony were more than doubled. In 1637 a small party

of Swedes had taken possession of the mouth of the Delaware River and made settlements there; in 1655 Stuyvesant overcame and annexed this little colony. But it was soon the turn of the Dutch themselves to be swallowed up by a greater power. From its geographical relations with the interior the Hudson River was the most commanding military position in North America, and the English had no mind to leave it in the hands of their rivals the Dutch. They got possession of New Amsterdam by an act of high-handed treachery quite characteristic of King Charles II. In the summer of 1664, at a time of peace between England and Holland, this monarch fitted out a secret expedition, under command of Colonel Richard Nichols, and sent it over to New Amsterdam to demand the surrender of the colony. Stuyvesant, taken by surprise, had only two hundred and fifty soldiers wherewith to defend the town against one thousand English veterans aided by the ninety guns of the fleet. The people, moreover, were weary of Stuyvesant's arrogant rule and ready to lend



Peter Stuyvesant

PETER STUYVESANT

a willing ear to the offer of English liberties. Accordingly, in spite of the governor's rage, the town was surrendered. New Netherland passed without a blow into the hands of the English, and became the proprietary domain of the king's brother, the Duke of York. He sold the portion between the Hudson and Delaware—or, as they were often called, the North and South—rivers to Sir George Carteret, who had won distinction as governor of the island of Jersey. In honor of Carteret this new domain was called New Jersey, while the rest of New Netherland was called New York, in honor of the duke. The region between the Delaware River and Maryland, which has since become the state of Delaware, remained for some time an appendage of New York.

THE BEGINNINGS OF NEW
ENGLAND

THE BEGINNINGS OF NEW ENGLAND

Earliest ventures. The Puritans. The Pilgrim Fathers. Company of Massachusetts Bay. Settlement of Massachusetts. Threatened dangers. Rhode Island. Connecticut. The Pequot War. Colony of New Haven. End of the exodus to New England. The New England Confederacy. Quakers in Boston. Coining money. The Connecticut charter. Visit of the royal commissioners. King Philip's War. The Massachusetts charter annulled. Tyranny of Sir Edmund Andros. Fall of the Stuart dynasty. Massachusetts becomes a royal province

The country now known as New England, together with the region west of it and as far south as the Delaware River, was for some time called "North Virginia." The first attempt to found a colony here was made by Bartholomew Gosnold in 1602. He discovered and named Cape Cod, Martha's Vineyard, and the Elizabeth Islands, and built a house on the little islet of Cuttyhunk, but want of provisions drove him back to England. Further unsuccessful attempts were made by Martin Pring in 1603, and by George Waymouth in

1606. We have already seen how the London and Plymouth companies for the colonization of North America were incorporated in 1606. In the following year—the same which saw the building of Jamestown—an expedition was made to “North Virginia” under the auspices of the Plymouth Company. Sir Ferdinando Gorges, a gentleman of Somersetshire, and Sir John Popham, chief justice of the King’s Bench, were the persons chiefly interested in this enterprise. The settlers built some huts near the mouth of the Kennebec River and spent the winter of 1607–1608 there, half-frozen and half-starved. The next spring they returned and reported that the country was too cold to be habitable by Englishmen.

In the spring of 1614 the famous John Smith came over with two ships and explored the coast very minutely from the mouth of the Penobscot to Cape Cod. He made an interesting map of the coast and named the country New England, and at his instance the king’s second son, afterwards Charles I, gave names to more than thirty places on the map;



JOHN SMITH'S MAP OF NEW ENGLAND

of these Cape Ann, Charles River, and Plymouth still remain as originally given. The next year Smith started with a second expedition, but was defeated and taken prisoner by a French squadron. In 1616 Gorges sent out a party which stayed all winter by the river

Saco. In June, 1620, one of Smith's captains, named Dermer, landed at Plymouth and pronounced it a good place for a settlement, if only fifty or more people could be got together



Henry VIII

HENRY VIII

for that purpose. Within five months this idea was to be realized in an extraordinary and quite unforeseen manner.

The Protestant Reformation, set on foot in England in the reign of Henry VIII, was secured in 1588 by the defeat of the great

Spanish Armada. After this triumph attention was soon called to a division which had for some time been growing up in the ranks of the Protestants. Some of the reformers wished



JOHN CALVIN

to go to much greater lengths than did those who under Edward VI and Elizabeth had established the Church of England. Their extreme views were partly an inheritance from the Lollards, or disciples of the great reformer Wyclif, and partly the result of contact with the followers of John Calvin. During the

persecution under Mary many Englishmen had taken refuge in Switzerland and become Calvinists; and on their return they found the reforms of Elizabeth not extensive enough to suit them. They wished to simplify the government of the church and do away with many of its forms and ceremonies, so as to make it (as one of their opponents angrily observed) a "church of the Purity"; and from this sneer, it has been supposed, was derived the glorious name of Puritan, by which these people will always be known. During Elizabeth's reign the Puritans became numerous in all parts of England; but they were especially numerous in the eastern counties of Lincoln, Norfolk, Suffolk, and Essex, and in the southwestern shires of Somerset, Dorset, and Devon, so famous for their share in the maritime adventures of that wonderful time. These parts of rural England should on one account have an especial interest for Americans, for among their picturesque villages and smiling fields once dwelt the forefathers of nearly twenty millions of our fellow-countrymen.



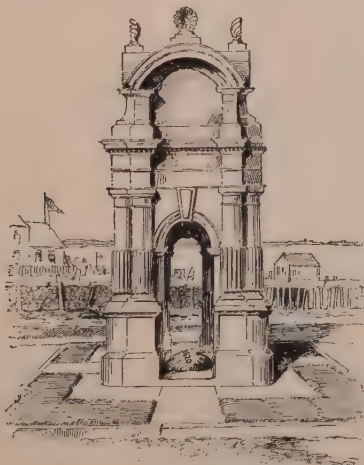
SCROOBY

During the reigns of Elizabeth and James I the Puritans generally did not wish to leave the Church of England, but hoped to stay in it and reform it according to their own notions. But as early as 1567 a small number of ministers, despairing of accomplishing what they wanted, made up their minds to separate from the church and to hold religious services in private houses. In 1580 a Norfolk clergyman named Robert Brown went about advocating this policy of separation, and those who adopted it were known as Separatists or Brownists. They were accused of sedition and persecuted. Many were thrown into jail; some were hanged; Brown fled to the Netherlands. The persecution was kept up intermittently for the next thirty years.

At Scrooby, a hamlet in Nottinghamshire near the edge of Lincoln, there was a congregation of Separatists who listened to the eloquent preaching of John Robinson. In 1608 they fled in a body to Holland, where they maintained themselves for a while at Leyden. But the prospect of losing their English

speech and nationality in a foreign land did not please them, and after ten years they made up their minds to migrate to America. They sent agents to England, obtained a grant from the London Company, and petitioned the king for a charter. James refused them a charter, but made no objections to their going; and on the 16th of September, 1620, the *Mayflower* set sail from Plymouth, in Devonshire, with one hundred and two passengers on board. They aimed at the coast of New Jersey, but when they sighted land on the 19th of November it was the peninsula of Cape Cod. After spending some time in exploring the coast, they landed at length, on the 21st of December, at the spot already marked on Smith's map as Plymouth. The principal leaders of this migration were William Brewster, William Bradford, John Carver, and Miles Standish. They made a treaty with Massasoit, the sachem of the Wampanoag Indians, who lived in the neighborhood, and this treaty was observed for fifty-four years. Though relieved of danger

from this source, their sufferings were great. More than half their number died the first year, and after ten years they had increased to only three hundred. Their grant from



CANOPY OVER PLYMOUTH ROCK

the London Company was useless, as their settlement was beyond its limits; but in 1621 they got a new grant from the Plymouth Company. After 1630 they began to profit by the great emigration set on foot by the Company of Massachusetts Bay, and their

numbers increased much more rapidly. In 1640 the population of the Plymouth colony had nearly reached three thousand; in 1670 it had reached eight thousand, distributed among twenty towns.

In 1627 the project of colonizing New England was taken up afresh by a remarkable body of men of wealth, culture, and high social position, including many leaders of the Puritan party, which had now come to be very powerful in England. They purchased a large tract of land from the Plymouth Company and got from Charles I a charter incorporating them as the Company of Massachusetts Bay. The affairs of this new company were to be managed by a governor, deputy governor, and eighteen assistants, to be elected annually by the members. They could make any laws they liked for the settlers, provided they did not contravene the laws of England. But the place where the company was to hold its meetings was not mentioned in the charter. Accordingly, in 1629 the company decided to take its charter over to New

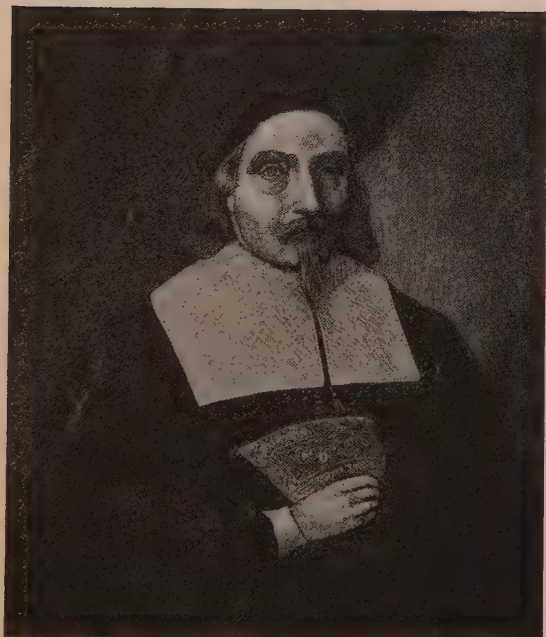
England and found a self-governing community there. The king and his friends bore no good will to these men, but no attempt was made to interfere with their proceedings. At this moment the king was not unwilling to have a number of leading Puritans go away from England. In the attempt to found a colony they might perish as so many had already done. Should they succeed and be-

come troublesome, Charles I was not the man to let a charter stand in the way of his dealing with them as he liked. He never felt bound to keep his word about anything,—a trait of character which was by and by to cost him his head.



CHARLES I

The name "Massachusetts" is an Algonquin word meaning Great Hills, and is said to have been first applied to the Blue Hills in Milton and to the tribe of Indians dwelling in that neighborhood. As a territorial designation it was first given by the English settlers to the Massachusetts Fields near the mouth of the Neponset River. By 1630 a group of settlements had been begun in this neighborhood, at Dorchester, Roxbury, Boston, Charlestown, and Watertown. John Endicott had come to Salem two years earlier. During the year 1630 more than a thousand persons came over to Massachusetts. John Winthrop, a wealthy gentleman from Groton, in Suffolk, was the first governor of the company; and Thomas Dudley, a distant relative of Queen Elizabeth's favorite, the Earl of Leicester, accompanied him as deputy governor. At first it was thought that public business could be transacted by a primary assembly of all the freemen in the colony held four times a year; but the number of freemen increased so fast that this was very soon



Jo: Endicott

JOHN ENDICOTT

found to be impracticable. Accordingly the colonists fell back upon the old English rural plan of electing deputies or representatives to a general court. For a few years the deputies sat in the same chamber with the assistants, but in 1644 they were formed into a second chamber with increased powers; and this was the origin of the American system of legislation by two houses, a senate and a house of representatives. The chamber of assistants answered partly to the council and partly to the senate of later times. The whole plan was a sort of miniature copy of the English system, the governor answering to the king, the assistants to the upper house of Parliament, and the representatives to the lower house.

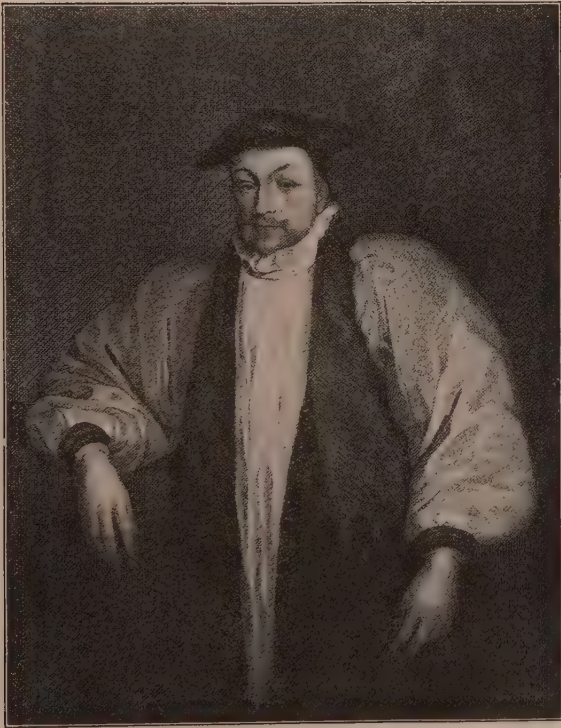
The Puritans who now came to Massachusetts had not formally separated from the Church of England, as the settlers of Plymouth had done, but the separation was soon effected. Two clergymen at Salem consecrated each other and drew up a confession of faith and a church covenant; and thirty

persons joining in this covenant constituted the first Congregational church in America. A committee of their number then formally ordained the two ministers by the laying on of hands. These proceedings gave umbrage



THE SEAL OF PLYMOUTH COLONY

to two of the Salem party, who tried forthwith to set up a church in conformity with Episcopal models. These two men were immediately sent back to England, and so the principle was virtually laid down that the Episcopal form of worship would not be tolerated in the colony. The settlers, who had been so



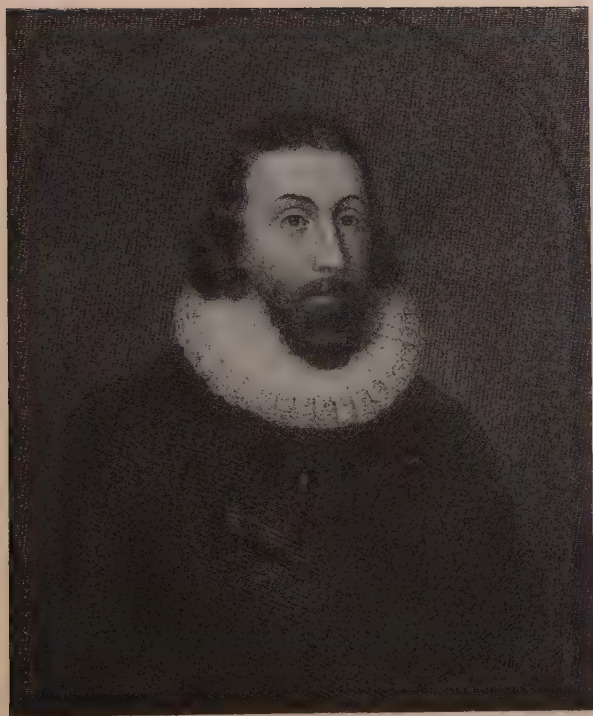
WILLIAM LAUD, ARCHBISHOP OF CANTERBURY

grievously annoyed by Episcopacy in England, considered this exclusiveness necessary for their self-protection, and in 1631 they carried it still farther. They decided that "no man shall be admitted to the freedom of this body politic but such as are [*sic*] members of some of the churches within the limits of the same." If any of the dreaded emissaries of Strafford and Laud—the advisers and abettors of the despotic policy of Charles I—were to come to Massachusetts, this measure would prevent their voting or taking any active part in public affairs.

By the year 1634 nearly four thousand settlers had arrived; about twenty villages had been founded; the building of permanent houses, roads, fences, and bridges had begun to go on quite briskly; lumber, furs, and salted fish were sent to England in exchange for manufactured articles; several thousand goats and cattle grazed in the pastures, and swine innumerable rooted in the clearings and helped to make ready the land for the plowman. Amid this hurry of pioneer work the

interests of education were not forgotten. So many of the leaders of the emigration were university men, mostly from Cambridge, that it was not long before a university began to seem indispensable to the colony. A few common schools were already in existence when in 1636 the General Court appropriated £400 towards the establishment of a college at Newtown, three miles west of Boston. Two years later John Harvard, a young clergyman at Charlestown, dying childless, bequeathed his books and half his estate to the new college, which was forthwith called by his name; while in honor of the mother university the name of the town was changed to Cambridge.

This appropriation of public money for a college was a wonderful thing in 1636, for in that year the infant colony was threatened with formidable perils. The king and his party did not like the liberties which the men of Massachusetts were taking with things ecclesiastical and political, and it was resolved to destroy their charter. They had bitter enemies, too,



Jo: winthrop
Govr

JOHN WINTHROP

among the members of the old Plymouth Company. An attempt was made to seize the Massachusetts charter and to divide the territory of the colony among half a dozen hostile noblemen. As soon as the men of Massachusetts heard of this, they meditated armed resistance. They began building forts in and about Boston harbor, militia companies were put in training, and a beacon was set up on the highest hill in Boston to give the alarm in the event of the approach of an enemy. But the danger was postponed by events in England. The king issued his famous writ of ship money, and Archbishop Laud undertook to impose his new liturgy upon Scotland. These things soon raised such a storm in the old country that Massachusetts was for a time forgotten and went on thriving and managing its own affairs.

While the colonists were kept in suspense by the ill will of the home government, there were causes of strife at work at their very doors, of which they were fain to rid themselves as soon as possible. Among those who

came over in 1631 was a remarkable young graduate of Oxford named Roger Williams, one of the noblest men of his time. In 1633 he became pastor of a church in Salem. He was an advocate of religious freedom in the



THE CHURCH IN WHICH ROGER WILLIAMS
PREACHED IN SALEM

modern sense, of the entire separation of church from state, and of the equal protection of all forms of religious faith. At that time very few people held such liberal views. The Puritans of Massachusetts made no pretense to any such liberality. They did not cross the ocean in order to found a state in which

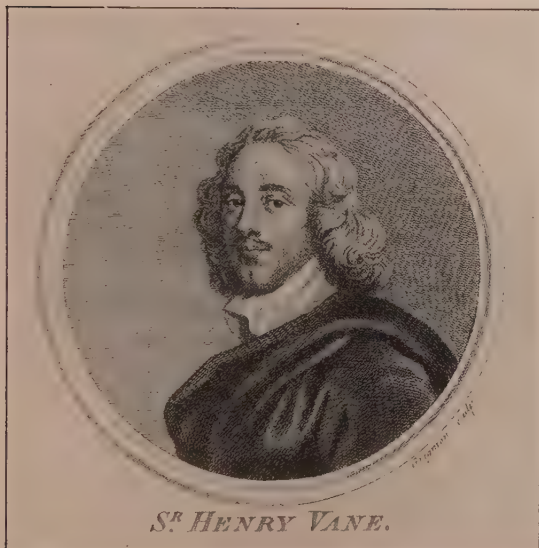


Roger Williams

ROGER WILLIAMS

every one might believe and behave according to his own notions of what was right. They came in order to found a state in which everything might be cut and dried in accordance with the notions which they held as a

community. If anybody disagreed with them, let him imitate their example and go away and found a state for himself; there was room enough in the American wilderness. Such being their views, it was impossible for the strict Puritans to look with approval upon Roger Williams. But presently he made himself odious by a political pamphlet in which he denied the right of the colonists to the lands which they held in New England under the king's grant. Such a doctrine at such a time was not to be endured, and Williams was ordered to return to England. He escaped to the woods and passed a winter with the Indians about Narragansett Bay, learning their language and acquiring a great personal influence over them. In the spring of 1636 he learned that although the Massachusetts people would not have him preaching among them, they made no objection to his moving off and setting up a church and state of his own; and under such circumstances the beginnings of the state of Rhode Island were made at Providence.



J. P. M. R.

In this same eventful year, 1636, a very bright and capable lady from Lincolnshire, named Mrs. Anne Hutchinson, came to Boston and gave lectures there. She entertained peculiar views about "justification," and many of her hearers forsook the teachings of the

regular ministers to follow her. There was fierce excitement among the people of the little half-built town in the wilderness. Mrs. Hutchinson found defenders among people of high position, among them the famous Sir Henry Vane, who was for that year governor of Massachusetts but soon returned to England to become one of the greatest of Protestant statesmen, and ultimately to die on the scaffold. Sir Henry was a friend to freedom of speech, but the men of Massachusetts were not mistaken in maintaining that Mrs. Hutchinson was dangerous to the colony. An Indian war was at hand, and so hot had the theological quarrel grown that many men were ready to refuse to serve in the militia because they entertained doubts as to the soundness of the chaplain's opinions. Accordingly Mrs. Hutchinson was expelled from the colony. Of her friends and adherents some, going northward, founded the towns of Exeter and Hampton, near Portsmouth and Dover, which had already been settled by followers of Sir Ferdinando Gorges. In 1641 these four towns were added by

their own consent to the domain of Massachusetts, and so the matter stood until 1679, when Charles II marked them off as the royal province of New Hampshire.

Mrs. Hutchinson herself, however, with the rest of her adherents, bought the island of Aquidneck from the Indians, and there, in 1639, made the beginnings of Newport. Soon afterwards Mrs. Hutchinson moved into New Netherland, and in 1643 was murdered by Indians. One of her descendants was Thomas Hutchinson, the famous Tory governor of Massachusetts at the time of the Boston Tea Party.

The colony of Rhode Island, thus founded by exiles from Massachusetts, continued to practice universal toleration and became a refuge for heretical and oppressed people. At the same time society was for many years extremely turbulent there, and the colony was regarded with strong disfavor by its neighbors.

During the same eventful year, 1636, the foundations of Connecticut were laid. A few Plymouth men had already established themselves on the site of Hartford, and the younger

John Winthrop had built a fort at Saybrook, commanding the mouth of the river. In the course of 1635 twenty vessels came from England to Massachusetts, bringing three thousand colonists. The land near the coast was as yet by no means crowded, but there were many people who disapproved the course of Massachusetts in allowing none but church members to vote, and this disapproval would seem to have had something to do with the migration to the Connecticut valley. The towns of Windsor, Hartford, and Wethersfield were founded in 1636, and in the colony which thus arose there was no restriction of the right of suffrage to church members.

It was now sixteen years since the landing of the Pilgrims, yet none of the little colonies had been molested by the Indians. The treaty with Massasoit had been strictly maintained in the east and had kept things quiet there. As settlers now moved westward they encountered other Indians. To the west of the Wampanoags dwelt the Narragansetts, and to the west of these the formidable Pequots,



in what is now the valley of the Thames. North of the Pequots, in the highlands of Worcester County, were the Nipmucks, while the Connecticut valley was the home of the Mohicans. The Pequots bullied and harassed the other tribes and were the terror of the New England forests. They soon came into collision with the settlers of Connecticut, and their chief sachem, Sassacus, tried to persuade all the tribes to unite in a grand crusade against the English and drive them into the ocean. But the Narragansetts and Mohicans hated the Pequots too bitterly for this, and they made alliances with the white men. For several months the Pequots prowled around the Connecticut settlements, murdering and kidnapping, until the wrath of the English was kindled and they made up their minds to strike a blow that would be long remembered. On a moonlit night in May, 1637, Captains Underhill and Mason, with a force of seventy-seven white men and four hundred friendly Indians, stormed the principal palisaded village of the Pequots, burned it



JOHN DAVENPORT

John Davenport

to the ground, and massacred all but five of its seven hundred inhabitants. The miserable remnant of the Pequot tribe was soon wiped out of existence, and there was peace in the land for forty years.

About a month after this terrible vengeance a company of wealthy London merchants arrived in Boston. Their minister,

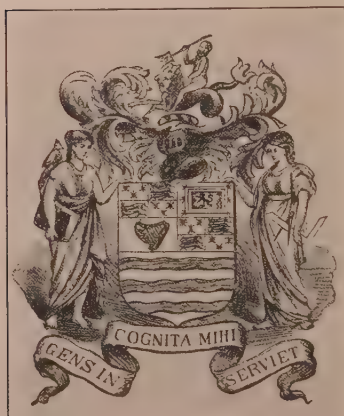
John Davenport, had drawn upon himself the especial enmity of Archbishop Laud. It was their desire to put into practice a Puritan ideal of society even stricter than that of Massachusetts, and after a year they sailed up Long Island Sound and settled New Haven, and presently Milford and Guilford. These towns united to form a commonwealth which was for some time distinct from Connecticut. In the colony of New Haven none but church members were allowed to vote, and in many respects it was the most puritanical of the New England colonies. It is said that in New Haven were enacted the famous "Blue Laws," forbidding people to kiss their children on Sunday, or to make mince pies, or to play on any musical instrument except a drum, trumpet, or jew's-harp. People speaking carelessly are wont to allude to these wonderful edicts as the "Blue Laws of *Connecticut*." But in truth there never were any "Blue Laws" at all. The story was invented in 1781 by Dr. Peters, a Tory refugee in London, in order to cast ridicule upon the Puritans of New England.

Ever since the year 1629, when the Company of Massachusetts Bay was chartered, King Charles I had contrived by hook or by crook to get along without calling a parliament. In doing so he had imposed illegal taxes upon the English people and interfered with their freedom in various ways, and more especially with their freedom of worship, until their patience was worn out; and at length, in 1640, when the king, for want of money, was obliged to summon a parliament, the day of reckoning began. Before granting money it was the custom of parliaments to demand a redress of grievances, and this parliament found so much of that sort of work to do that it came to be known as the Long Parliament. It conducted a great war, beheaded the king, and saw the government of Cromwell rise and fall before it finally ended its existence in 1660, after the strangest career that a legislative body has ever had since history began.

The meeting of the Long Parliament marked the end of the Puritan exodus to New England. The Puritans had now so much work

to do in the mother country that their annual migrations across the Atlantic abruptly ceased. More than twenty thousand had come to New England between 1630 and 1640, and as many as five thousand children born in the new country were growing to maturity. During the next hundred years probably more people went back to England than came thence to the New England colonies. For more than a century the Puritan states in America pursued their career in remarkable seclusion from other communities, and developed a supple and sturdy type of character, which has already proved to be of great value to the world. It was not until after the Revolutionary War that these people began anew to take up their westward march into the state of New York and beyond, until now, after another century, we see some of their descendants dwelling in a Portland and a Salem on the Pacific coast.

With a view to more efficient self-defense against the Indians, the French of Canada, and the Dutch, a confederation of New England colonies was formed at Boston in 1643.



SEAL OF THE UNITED COLONIES OF NEW ENGLAND

Massachusetts, Plymouth, New Haven, and Connecticut formed themselves into a league under the style of "The United Colonies of New England." The Rhode Island plantations were not admitted to the league because of their disorderly condition and the prejudice against them on the part of the other colonies. The administration of the league was put into the hands of eight federal commissioners, two from each colony, and this board had entire control over all dealings with the Indians or with foreign powers. It

was to hold its meetings once a year, or oftener should occasion require it. This confederate government did not work so well as it might have done, because Massachusetts, being stronger than the other three colonies together, was sometimes inclined to domineer. But it did excellent service for forty years, and the details of its political history are extremely interesting.

This federation of the four colonies was an act of sovereignty performed without consulting the home government, and it was regarded with jealousy in England. But Charles I had too much on his hands to interfere with these bold Puritans, and their friend Cromwell was not disposed to molest them. So the confederacy flourished in peace till after Charles II had returned from his wanderings and taken his seat upon the throne which he was to disgrace. There were plenty of malcontents in England who had been sent back there because the Puritans of the New World did not like their society. Such persons poured their grievances into the royal ear.

They said that the people of New England were all rebels at heart; and if it was meant by this that they were bent upon having their own way without regard to the wishes of the home government, there was a great deal of truth in it. Men who had crossed the ocean and encountered the hardships of the wilderness in order to secure the priceless treasure of self-government were likely to insist upon keeping what they had won at such great cost.

The Puritans, however, were very far from being always in the right. We have seen that they were by no means tolerant of those who disagreed with them in opinion. For a while they got along by banishing such people or sending them back to England; but at length their exclusive scheme of government was put to the test by a set of people as resolute as themselves, who persisted in coming among them and would not go away when they were bidden. These resolute people were the Quakers,—one of the noblest of Christian sects, but in their origin, like other sects, the object of much contumely. They

believed in private inspiration, and the Puritans were very much afraid of such a doctrine because they thought it must lead to looseness of living. The Quakers came over from England not so much to escape persecution as to preach their doctrines. Accordingly they were not satisfied with staying in Rhode Island, where they were tolerated, but insisted on coming into Massachusetts. Those who came were banished under penalty of death; but they returned, and at length four were hanged on a gallows erected on Boston Common. This was the most disgraceful thing that ever happened in New England. The tragedy ended in 1661 with the victory of the Quakers, when one of their number, the brave Wenlock Christison, came into court and threatened the judges. "I am come here to warn you," said he, "that ye shed no more innocent blood." He was arrested and condemned to death; but the people were now shocked at the severity of the magistrates, and the sentence was not executed. The persecution of Quakers, however, continued for a

while in a milder form, and thirty or more were imprisoned or whipped.

It was the policy of Charles II to be tolerant towards Quakers. Catholics and Quakers were the two kinds of Christians whom all other sects agreed in considering as outside the pale of toleration. Charles was secretly a Catholic and wished to advance Catholic interests in England, and he could do this only by pursuing a general policy of which Quakers as well as Catholics got the benefit. In 1661 he issued an order in council forbidding the General Court of Massachusetts to inflict bodily punishment upon Quakers and directing it to send them to England for trial. Now to send people to England for trial was a humiliation to which Massachusetts would never submit, and she now not merely disregarded the king's message but even defied it by enacting new laws against the Quakers.

The enemies of the New England people, while dilating upon this rebellious disposition of Massachusetts, could also remind the king that for several years that colony had been



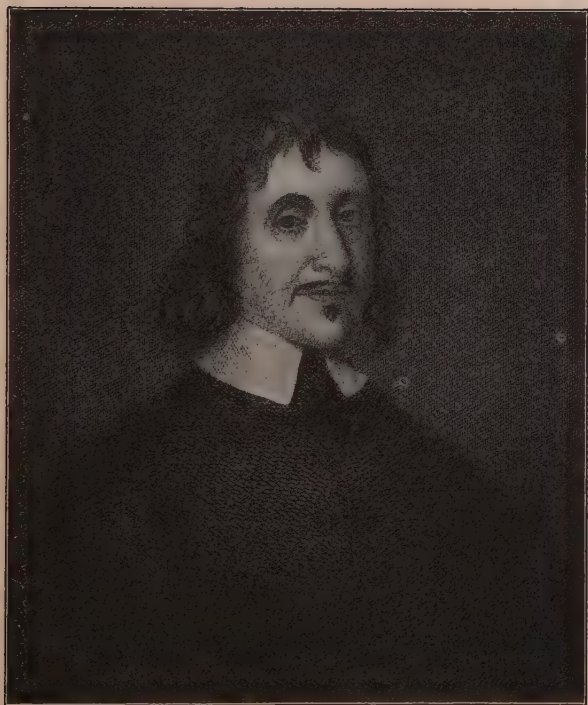
PINE-TREE SHILLING OF MASSACHUSETTS

coining and circulating shillings and sixpences with the name "Massachusetts" and a tree on one side, and the name "New England" and the date on the other. There was no recognition of England in this coinage, which was begun in 1652 and kept up for more than thirty years. Such pieces of money used to be called "pine-tree shillings"; but, so far as looks go, the tree might have been anything, and an adroit friend of New England once assured the king that it was meant for the royal oak in which his majesty hid himself after the battle of Worcester!

Against the colony of New Haven the king bore a special grudge. Two of the regicide judges who had sat in the tribunal which condemned his father had found refuge in

that colony, and the bold minister Davenport had openly aided and comforted them. Moreover New Haven had delayed more than a year in recognizing the restoration of Charles II to the throne. So the king was naturally very angry with New Haven, when circumstances enabled him to punish this disloyal colony, to snub Massachusetts, and to deal a blow at the confederacy, all at one and the same time.

Massachusetts and New Haven had agreed in allowing only members of the Congregational church to vote. The main object of this was to keep out Episcopalians, but there were many who disapproved of such exclusiveness. Connecticut disapproved of it and had some controversy with New Haven about the matter. None of the colonies save Massachusetts had a charter, and Connecticut was very anxious to obtain one. Perhaps this may have helped to make her prompt in recognizing the king's restoration. In 1661 the younger Winthrop went over to England to apply for a charter for Connecticut. The king thought it an excellent idea to weaken



John Winthrop

JOHN WINTHROP

Massachusetts by raising up a rival state by her side and sowing dissension among them. To suppress New Haven and forcibly annex her to Connecticut would be just the thing. Accordingly a charter of extraordinary liberality was granted to Connecticut, and she was given possession of all the territory of New Haven. At the same time, as if further to irritate Massachusetts, an equally liberal charter was granted to Rhode Island.

It was with great reluctance that the people of New Haven submitted to the enforced union with Connecticut. Many of the people, indeed, would not submit, but in 1667 migrated to New Jersey and laid the foundations of Newark.

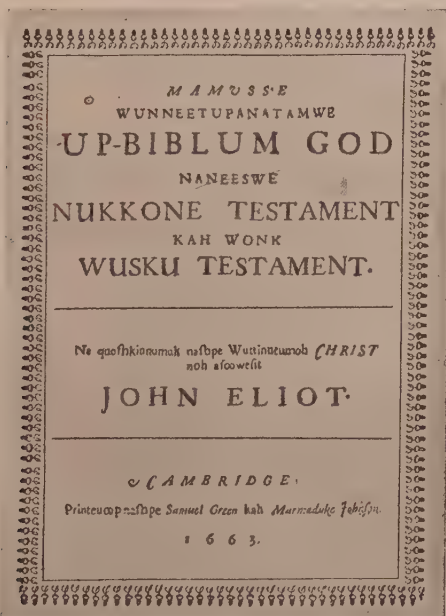
The suppression of one of its four members was a serious blow to the New England confederacy, but it continued its work with its constitution amended so as to make it a league of three states instead of four.

In the summer of 1664 the king sent a couple of ships of war to Boston harbor, with four hundred troops under the command of Colonel

Richard Nichols, who had been appointed with three others as royal commissioners to look after the affairs of the New World. Colonel Nichols took his ships to New Amsterdam and captured that important town. After his return the commissioners held meetings at Boston, and for a time the Massachusetts charter seemed in danger. But the Massachusetts lawyers were shrewd, and months were frittered away to no purpose. Presently the Dutch made war upon England, and the king felt it to be unwise to irritate the people of Massachusetts beyond endurance. The turbulent state of English politics which followed still further absorbed his attention, and New England had another respite of nearly twenty years.

In 1660 the sachem Massasoit died and was succeeded by his son Wamsutta, whom the English called Alexander. After two years Wamsutta died and was succeeded by his brother Metacom, whom the English called Philip. Since the annihilation of the Pequots there had been no outbreak of Indian hostilities,

although the Narragansetts had been with much reason suspected of plotting against the white men. As a rule the settlers had treated



TITLE-PAGE OF ELIOT'S TRANSLATION OF THE BIBLE

the natives with justice and kindness. The learned John Eliot had translated the Bible into their language and had converted many by his preaching. In 1674 there were four

thousand Christian Indians in New England. Schools were introduced among them and many learned to read and write. The English as yet showed no disposition to encroach upon the Indians, and they scrupulously paid for the land which they occupied.

Nevertheless the Indians dreaded and disliked this formidable power which had so rapidly grown up among them. In the presence of the white men they were no longer lords of the forest; they were obliged to recognize a master whom they hated and would gladly destroy. For a long time the terrible destruction of the Pequots held them in awe, but that wholesome feeling had begun to fade away. The red man had now become expert in the use of firearms, and no longer seemed so unequal a match for his white neighbor. Under these circumstances Philip seems to have formed a scheme for uniting the native tribes against the English and utterly destroying them. It was a scheme like that which Sassacus had entertained in 1636; and long afterwards, in 1763, Pontiac

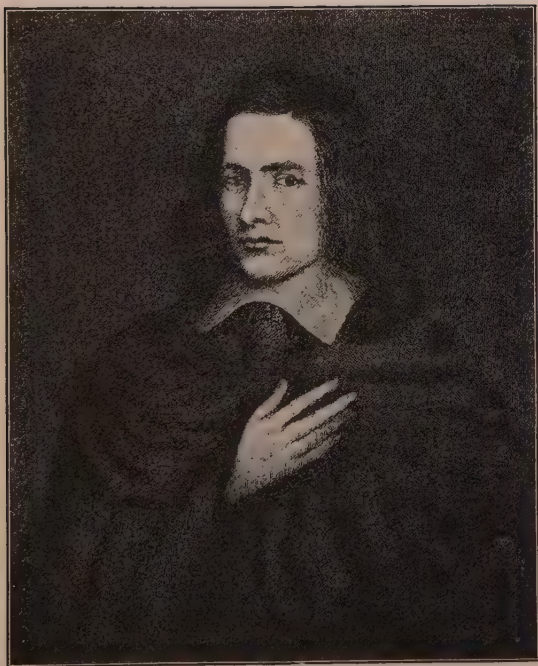


JOHN ELIOT

cherished a similar design. For several years the magistrates of Plymouth and Massachusetts were made uneasy by rumors of Philip's intrigues. At length, in June, 1675, the horrible work began with an attack upon the town of Swansea. Massacres followed at Dartmouth, Middleborough, and Taunton. Victims were flayed alive or tied to trees and scorched to death with firebrands. Driven from his own haunts by the colonial troops, Philip fled to the Nipmucks, and together they attacked Brookfield and came near destroying the village, but after a three days' fight they were defeated by troops from Lancaster. Captain Lothrop was overwhelmed near Deerfield by seven hundred Nipmucks, and of his force of ninety picked men only eight escaped the tomahawk. The Connecticut valley was ravaged from Northfield down to Springfield. In this desperate state of affairs it became evident that the Narragansetts also were meditating hostilities. They could muster three thousand warriors and were the most formidable of the New England tribes since

the extermination of the Pequots. The federal commissioners made up their minds to be beforehand and strike at the principal fortress or stockaded village of the Narragansetts. In December this stronghold was attacked by Governor Winslow, of Plymouth, with one thousand men. It stood on a rising ground in the middle of a great swamp; it was surrounded by rows of palisades, which made a wall twelve feet in thickness; and the only approach to its single door was over the trunk of a felled tree two feet in diameter and slippery with snow and ice. Victory under such circumstances was not easy to achieve, but the Puritan army did its work with a thoroughness that would have won the praise of Cromwell. After a desperate struggle they stormed the village with a loss of one fifth of their number. To the Indians no quarter was given, and on that day the Narragansett tribe was virtually swept from the face of the earth.

Rough as this work was, it was much easier to deal with the Indians when crowded behind



JOSIAH WINSLOW

palisades than to catch them when scattered about in the trackless forest. They were skillful in eluding pursuit and in dealing their blows in unexpected places. The war was kept up several months longer by the Nipmucks, until Captain Turner surprised and slew the flower of their warriors at the falls of the Connecticut which have since borne his name. This heavy blow (in May, 1676) broke the strength of the savages. In August Philip was hunted down and killed, and his severed head was mounted on a pole in the town of Plymouth. By this time the Tarra-teens in the northeast had caught the war fever, and during the next year most of the villages between the Piscataqua and the Kennebec were laid in ashes and their inhabitants massacred. In April, 1678, after a three years' reign of terror, the war came to an end. Of ninety towns in Massachusetts and Plymouth twelve had been quite destroyed, and forty others had been the scene of fire and slaughter. More than six hundred white men had lost their lives, besides the hundreds



THE BELT WHICH KING PHILIP WORE
FOR A CROWN

of women and children butchered in cold blood. The war debt of Massachusetts was very heavy, and that of Plymouth was reckoned to exceed the total amount of personal property in the colony; yet in the course of time every farthing of this indebtedness was paid. Fearful as was the damage done to the settlers, however, it was to the Indians that the destruction was fatal and final. Of disturbances wrought by them in central and southern New England we hear no more. Their power here was annihilated, and henceforth their atrocities were wrought chiefly on the frontier in concert with the French of Canada.

During this deadly struggle the men of New England had sought no help from beyond the sea and had got none. So far from helping

them, it was just this moment of weakness and danger that Charles II chose for wreaking his spite upon Massachusetts. Other circumstances favored his design. There was a considerable party in the colony which was disgusted with the illiberal policy which restricted the rights of citizenship to members of the Congregational church. The leader of this party was Joseph Dudley, an able man, son of the Dudley who had been lieutenant to Winthrop. Then there were in England the inheritors of the grudge of Gorges and his friends against the colony, and the malcontents who had suffered from the stern policy of the Puritans; and all these men found a bold and able leader in Edward Randolph, who even went so far as to propose that the Church of England should be established in Massachusetts and that none but Episcopal clergymen should be allowed to solemnize marriages there. This was like the policy which the king was trying to impose upon Scotland, and which for the next ten years was to fill that noble country with slaughter and weeping.

It was in 1679, just when all New England was groaning under the bereavements and burdens entailed by Philip's war, that the Stuart government began its final series of assaults upon Massachusetts. First the Piscataqua towns were taken away and made into a royal province under the name of New Hampshire. There was a difficulty of long standing between Massachusetts and the heirs of Gorges about the territory of Maine, which had lately been amicably adjusted; the king now annulled the arrangement that had been made. He also commanded the government of Massachusetts to abolish its peculiar restriction upon the right of suffrage and to allow Episcopal forms of worship. Much wrangling went on for the next five years, and at length, on June 21, 1684, the dispute was summarily ended by a decree in chancery annulling the charter of Massachusetts.

Now it was on this charter that not only all the cherished institutions of the colony but even the titles of individuals to their lands and homes were supposed to be founded.



Andros

SIR EDMUND ANDROS

By taking away the charter the king meant that the crown resumed all its original claim to the land and might grant it over again to other people if it felt so inclined. In February, 1685, a stroke of apoplexy carried off Charles II, and his equally wicked but much less able brother, the Duke of York, ascended the throne as James II. Sir Edmund Andros, a great favorite with the new king, was sent over to America to act as viceroy on a grand scale. All the New England colonies were lumped together with New York and New Jersey and put under his rule. In 1687 the charters of Connecticut and Rhode Island were rescinded, but the decree was never formally enrolled. In October of that year Andros went to Hartford to seize the charter, but failed to find it. According to local tradition it was hidden in the hollow trunk of an oak tree.

Andros was a coarse and unscrupulous man, and the two years of his government were the most wretched years in the history of New England. For the moment it seemed as if an end was about to be put to American freedom.

The governor imposed arbitrary taxes, seized upon private estates, encroached upon common lands, and suspended the writ of *habeas corpus*. It was announced that all titles were to be ransacked, and that he who wished to keep his property must pay a quitrent, which under the circumstances amounted to blackmail. The Old South meetinghouse was seized and used as an Episcopal church. The General Court was abolished and a censorship of the press was set up. Such barefaced tyranny was hardly ever seen before or since in any community speaking the English language. If it had lasted much longer, New England would have rebelled and there would have been war.

But the tyranny of Andros in America was but the counterpart of the tyranny which his royal master was trying to establish in England. The people rebelled and the tyrant fled across the Channel. In April, 1689, it became known in Boston that the Prince of Orange had landed in England. The signal fire was lighted on Beacon Hill, a meeting was held at the town-house, drums beat to arms, militia began to pour



William R.

WILLIAM III

in from the country, and Andros, disguised in woman's clothes, was arrested as he was trying to escape to a ship in the harbor. Five weeks afterwards the new sovereigns, William and Mary, were proclaimed in Boston, and the days of Stuart insolence were at an end.

From a Dutch Calvinist like William III the Puritans had little to fear on the score of religion; yet the king had no great liking for such a republican form of government as that of the New England colonies. The defiance with which Massachusetts had treated the Stuarts looked too much like a challenge of the royal prerogative in general; but the smaller colonies, having been less annoyed, had been less intractable, and now found favor with the king. Connecticut and Rhode Island were allowed to keep their old charters by which they were, to all intents and purposes, independent republican governments. Both states lived under these charters till long after the Revolution,—Connecticut until 1818, Rhode Island until 1843. New Hampshire was again changed into a royal province.

Plymouth was annexed to Massachusetts, and so were Maine and Nova Scotia. But along with this vast territorial extension there went a considerable curtailment of the political independence of Massachusetts. By the new charter, granted in 1691, the right of the people to be governed by a legislature of their own choosing was expressly confirmed; but all laws passed by the legislature were to be sent to England to receive the royal approval; the governor was henceforth to be appointed by the crown; church membership was not to be required of voters; and no worship was to be forbidden except the Roman Catholic.

From the accession of William and Mary to the accession of George III the history of the internal politics of Massachusetts is, for the most part, like the history of Virginia, the chronicle of a protracted brawl between the governors appointed by the crown and the legislatures chosen by the people. Thus these two great colonies, unlike each other in so many respects, were gradually preparing to unite in opposition to the home government.

THE LATER COLONIES

THE LATER COLONIES

The Carolinas. Pennsylvania

During the seventeenth century the only English colonies which figure conspicuously in American history are Virginia and Maryland, New York, and the colonies of New England. In the latter half of the century the foundations of the other English colonies were gradually laid. In order to provide for some of his loyal friends whose property had suffered in the great rebellion, Charles II in 1663 made a grant of the land between Virginia and Florida to a company of eight noblemen to hold as absolute proprietors, saving only a formal allegiance to the crown. This created a proprietary form of government somewhat similar to that of Maryland, save that, instead of the semiroyal lord proprietary, an oligarchy of noblemen was to stand at the head of the administration. The country

had already been named Carolina a century before by the unfortunate Jean Ribault, in honor of his king, Charles IX of France ; and



Charles

CHARLES II

the name served equally well for a colony founded by Charles II of England. An elaborate aristocratic constitution was drawn up

for the colony by John Locke, the philosopher, but it was never put in practice. Immigration went on for half a century, and two colonies grew up without much regard to the concerted scheme. The proprietary government was very unpopular. In 1729 South Carolina voluntarily became a royal province, and two years later North Carolina followed her example.

The differences between these two colonies were important and striking. All the colonies we have hitherto considered, except New York, were purely English in blood. In the Carolinas there were a great many French Huguenots, Germans, Swiss, Scotch, and Scotch-Irish; but in North Carolina this non-English element was by no means so great as in South Carolina, where it formed more than half the white population. The English element in North Carolina was at first of a very low character, consisting largely of "poor whites" and border ruffians escaped or driven from Virginia. Tobacco was cultivated in large quantities, but oftener on small estates than

on vast plantations. Agriculture was ruder than in any of the other colonies, and society was in a more disorderly condition. Slavery existed from the outset, but there were fewer slaves than in Virginia and the slavery was of a mild type. The white people were generally poor and uneducated, and knew comparatively little of what was going on beyond their borders. Yet in spite of these disadvantages North Carolina improved greatly during the eighteenth century, and by the time of the Revolution was becoming a comparatively thrifty and well-ordered state.

South Carolina, on the other hand, was a comparatively wealthy community. The plantations were large and the negro population greatly outnumbered the whites. The chief source of wealth was the cultivation of rice and indigo, and in these occupations an able-bodied negro could earn so much more in a single year than the cost of his purchase that it was more profitable to work him to death than to take care of him. Accordingly slavery was of a far more cruel type than in Virginia



CHARLESTON IN 1742

After an old engraving

and North Carolina, and the negro population remained more barbarous than in those colonies. The estates were mostly managed by overseers, and the planters usually congregated in Charleston, where all owned houses. Thus Charleston alone among many southern towns before the Revolution came to rival the chief northern towns in size and in trade. It was in 1776 the fifth city in the United States, with a population of fifteen thousand. The children of the rich planters were educated in Europe, and society in Charleston was cultivated and brilliant.

Everywhere except in turbulent Rhode Island the Quakers met with such an inhospitable



A handwritten signature of William Penn in a cursive script. The signature is written in dark ink and is positioned below the engraving. It features a large, stylized 'W' and 'P'.

WILLIAM PENN

reception that, like other sects, they were moved to found a colony according to their own notions. In 1677 a great number came to New Jersey and made settlements in

the western part of the country. Then the matter was taken up by a very remarkable man, the most celebrated of Quakers, who happened to be on terms of peculiar friendship and intimacy with the royal family. William Penn, son of a distinguished admiral, had been intrusted by his dying father to the especial care of the Duke of York; and here the interests of James were such as to keep him faithful to his trust. As already observed, Catholics and Quakers were the two sects which nobody tolerated, and so the Catholic Stuarts, in order to protect their own friends, were obliged to pursue a course which incidentally benefited the Quakers. Penn inherited the claim to a debt of £16,000 due from the crown to his father, and there was no way in which such a debt could more easily be paid than by a grant of unsettled territory in America. Accordingly in 1681 Penn obtained a grant of forty thousand square miles of territory comprised between the domain of Lord Baltimore and that of the Duke of York. Penn would have called this princely domain

New Wales, but the king insisted upon naming it Pennsylvania. Of all the colonies this was the only one that had no seacoast, and as Penn wanted free access to the ocean he proceeded to secure the proprietorship of Delaware, which for some years had been an appendage of New York. Throughout the remainder of the colonial period Pennsylvania and Delaware continued under the same proprietary government, though after 1702 they were distinct provinces, each with its own legislature. Penn's charter was drawn up in imitation of Lord Baltimore's, but differed from it in two important points. Laws passed by the assembly of Maryland were valid as soon as confirmed by Lord Baltimore, and did not even need to be seen by the king or his privy council; but the colonial enactments of Pennsylvania were required to be sent to England for the royal approval. In the Maryland charter the right of the crown to impose taxes within the limits of the province was expressly denied; in the Pennsylvania charter it was expressly affirmed.

In shaping the policy of his new colony Penn was allowed the widest latitude, and never was a colony founded on more liberal principles. Absolute freedom of conscience was guaranteed to every one, the laws were extremely humane, and land was offered to



SEAL OF PENNSYLVANIA

immigrants on very easy terms. Within three years from its foundation Pennsylvania contained eight thousand inhabitants, and it was not long in outgrowing all the other colonies except Virginia and Massachusetts. Of the white population scarcely half were English; about one third were Germans and the remainder chiefly Irish. In 1776 Philadelphia

was the largest city in the United States, with a population of thirty thousand, and in literary activity and general culture it was second only to Boston.

THE STRUGGLE BETWEEN
ENGLAND AND FRANCE

THE STRUGGLE BETWEEN ENGLAND AND FRANCE

Discovery of the Great West. Border wars. Settlement of Georgia. Completion of the contact between New France and the English colonies

While the settlement of Pennsylvania was filling up the gap between the northern and southern English colonies and was thus consolidating the English power upon the Atlantic seaboard, a gallant French explorer was adding vast domains in the interior to the empire of Louis XIV. Robert de la Salle was a man of iron if ever there was one. He did more than any one else to extend the dominion of France in the New World. In 1541 Ferdinand de Soto had discovered the Mississippi River in the lower part of its course, but the Spaniards had done nothing more in this quarter, and De Soto's discovery had lapsed nearly or quite into oblivion. In 1639 and following years the French began to approach

the great river from the north, the Jesuit missionaries taking the lead. In 1673 Marquette and Joliet reached the Mississippi by way of the Wisconsin, and sailed over its waters as far down as the mouth of the Arkansas. La Salle had already begun his work in 1669; and at length in 1682, after several unsuccessful attempts, in which he showed such indomitable pluck and perseverance as have never

A handwritten signature in dark ink, reading "L. Joliet". The script is cursive and elegant, with a large initial "L" and a stylized "J".

AUTOGRAPH OF JOLIET

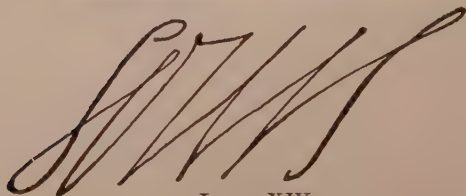
been surpassed, he explored the great river to its mouth in the Gulf of Mexico, took possession of the country drained by it in the name of the king of France, and named it after him Louisiana. But before he had been able to carry out his design of establishing a colony at the mouth of the river, after a long series of terrible hardships, he was waylaid in the forest and murdered by some mutinous wretches of his own party.



de la salle

ROBERT DE LA SALLE

At the time of La Salle's death in 1687 the deadly rivalry between the French and the English colonies was already becoming pronounced. The northward and westward growth of New England and the English conquest of New Netherland had brought the

A large, stylized signature in dark ink, consisting of several sweeping, interconnected loops and strokes, characteristic of the French royal signature of Louis XIV.

LOUIS XIV

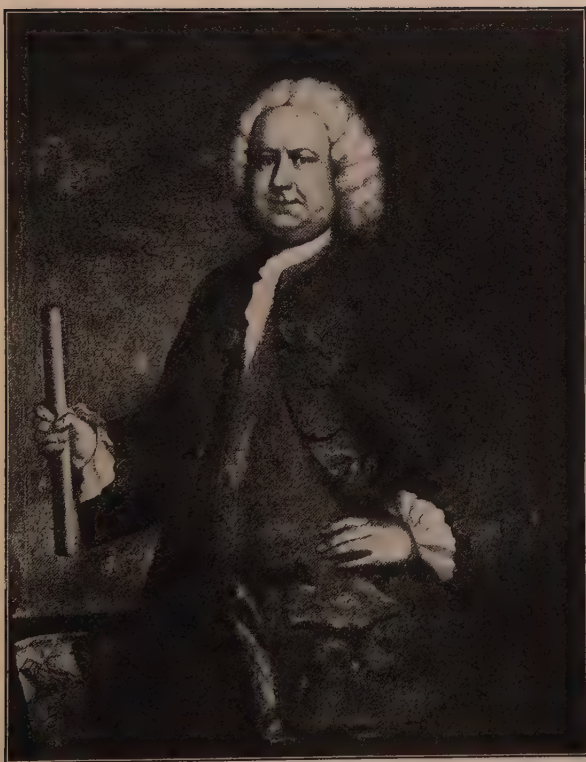
two great rivals face to face. The savage struggle between the French and the Iroquois had now been kept up for many years. In 1689 the Iroquois attacked Montreal, and for

a moment it seemed as if they might prove more than a match for the French and their Algonquin allies. But in 1693 and 1696 they received a terrible chastisement at the hands of Count Frontenac, who was one of the ablest of the viceroys sent from France to govern Canada. Frontenac marched through the Mohawk Valley from Lake Ontario, burning towns, laying waste the country, and seizing upon the principal war chiefs as hostages. Between 1690 and 1697 the Iroquois confederacy lost more than half its warriors, and never recovered from the blow, although it still remained a formidable power until after the Revolutionary War.

The great struggle between France and England began, both in the Old World and in the New, in 1690, on the occasion of the accession of Louis XIV's archenemy, William of Orange, to the English throne. In 1690 a party of Frenchmen and Algonquins surprised the frontier town of Schenectady and slaughtered sixty of the inhabitants. During the next seven years they perpetrated shocking

massacres at Salmon Falls and Durham in New Hampshire, at York and Fort Loyal (on the site of Portland) in Maine, and at Groton and Haverhill in Massachusetts. In 1690 the Massachusetts militia under Sir William Phips sailed up the St. Lawrence and laid siege to Quebec, while the Connecticut forces under Winthrop marched against Montreal; but these generals were no match for Frontenac, and both expeditions ended disastrously. In the following year the French were defeated in a bloody battle by the New York militia and Mohawks under Peter Schuyler. But, on the whole, as long as Frontenac lived the English had the worst of it. He died at Quebec in 1698, just after the Peace of Ryswick had for a moment put an end to hostilities.

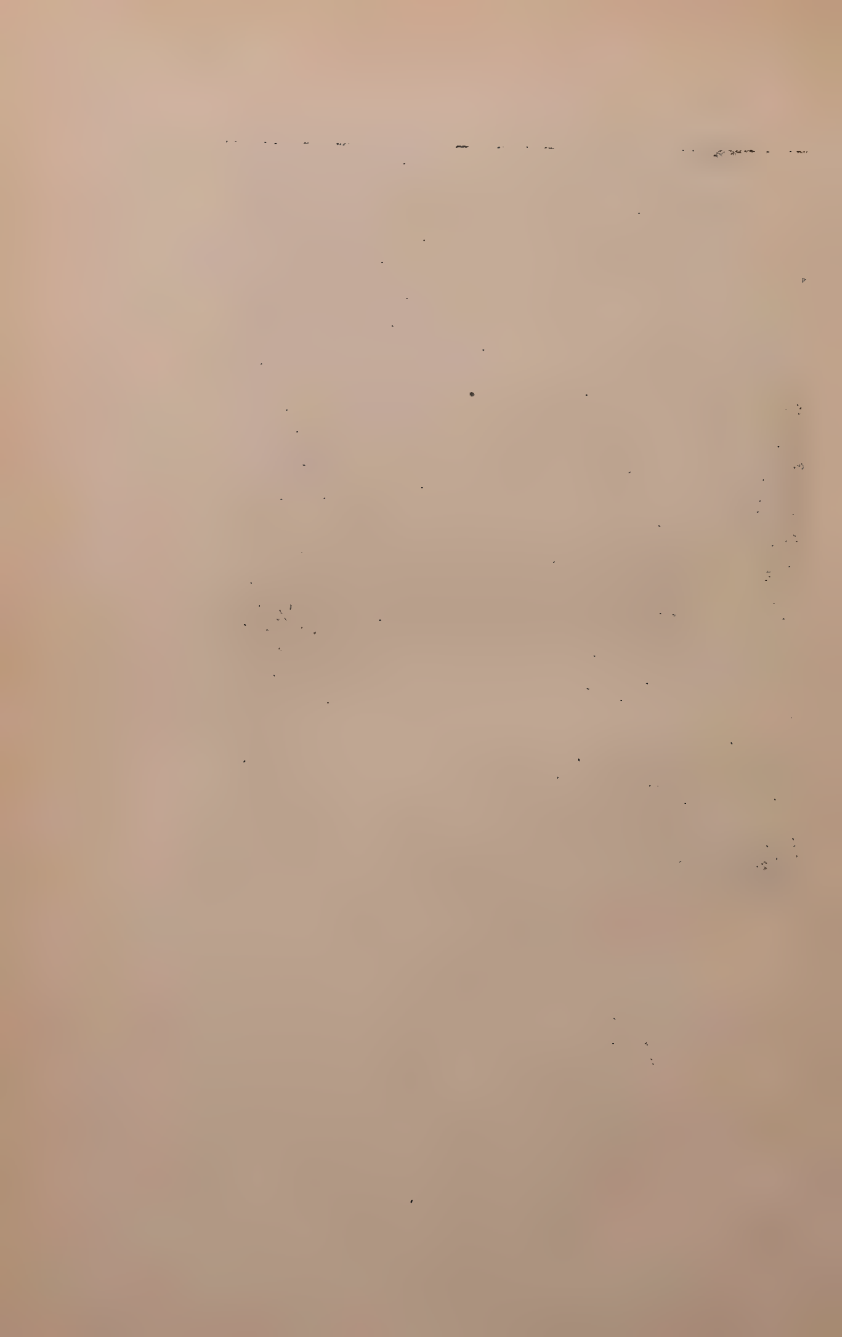
Peace was of very brief duration. In 1702 began the War of the Spanish Succession, which was known in America as Queen Anne's War. For eleven years New York and New England were harassed by barbarous foes. There was an atrocious massacre at Deerfield in 1704, and another at Haverhill in 1708, and



W^m Pepperell

WILLIAM PEPPERELL

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at all times there was terror on the frontier. In this war the French were worsted, and at the Peace of Utrecht in 1713 Acadia was ceded to England.

After twenty-eight years of peace between the two great rivals the War of the Austrian Succession broke out in 1741 and lasted till 1748. In America this was known as King George's War. Its principal incident was the capture of the great stronghold of Louisburg on Cape Breton Island by four thousand New England troops under William Pepperell in 1745. This fortress commanded the fisheries and the approaches to the St. Lawrence, and its capture saved New England from a contemplated French invasion. The gilded iron cross which stands over the entrance to Harvard College Library was taken from the market place of Louisburg on this occasion. At the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748, greatly to the disgust of New England, Louisburg was restored to the French in exchange for Madras, in Hindustan, which France had taken from England.

The southern colonies took little or no part in these earlier wars against the French. It was the Spaniards with whom they had to contend. The Spaniards laid claim to the Carolinas as part of Florida, and kept inciting the Indians to hostilities toward the settlers. During the first quarter of the eighteenth century the southern frontier witnessed many massacres of settlers by the Indians. The great multitude of negro slaves, too, in South Carolina, ever ripe for insurrection, made the neighborhood of the hostile Spaniards especially dangerous. In 1732 this wretched state of affairs attracted the attention of a gallant English soldier, James Oglethorpe, who conceived the plan of establishing a new colony which might serve as a military outpost against the Spaniards. The land between the Savannah River and the Spanish settlements in Florida was made over to a board of trustees, and named Georgia in honor of the reigning king. The government was in the proprietary form, the trustees standing in the place of the lord proprietary. Oglethorpe was appointed



James Oglethorpe

JAMES OGLETHORPE

governor, and he obtained his first company of colonists by setting free the insolvent debtors who crowded the prisons of England after the failure of the South Sea Bubble and other wild speculations. Germans and Scotchmen came

over in considerable numbers, and a few people from New England joined in the enterprise and founded the town of Sunbury. In 1739 England and Spain were at war, and Oglethorpe's military colony quite justified the foresight of its founder. In 1742 the Spaniards were defeated with great slaughter in the decisive battle of Frederica; and in the following year Oglethorpe invaded Florida and might have conquered it if he had been properly supported. After Oglethorpe's return to England the proprietary government became so unpopular that in 1752 Georgia was made a crown colony. Slavery, which had at first been prohibited, was then introduced, and the colony became in its social characteristics similar to South Carolina, though it was long before it outgrew the illiterateness and barbarism of a wild frontier community. At the time of the Revolution it was the smallest of the thirteen colonies, with a population of fifty thousand, of which one half were slaves.

The work of establishing a French colony at the mouth of the Mississippi, interrupted by



Le Moyne D'Iberville

LE MOYNE D'IBERVILLE

the untimely death of the heroic La Salle, was taken up again in 1699 by Le Moyne D'Iberville. In the course of his operations Mobile was founded in 1702, and in 1718 a French company made the beginnings of the city of New Orleans. The boundary between the French and English colonies was now a very

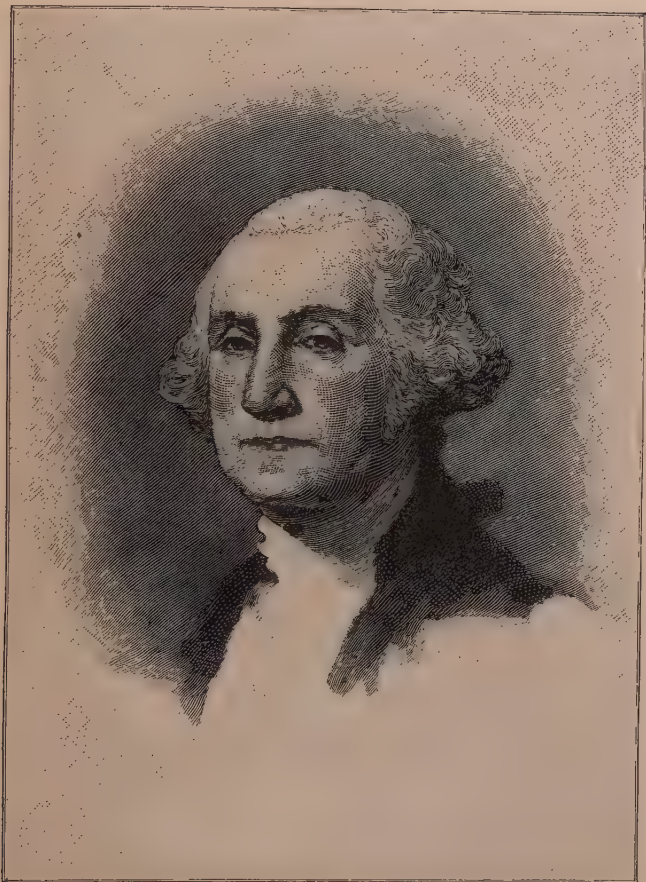


Durand Juvet.

NEW ORLEANS IN 1719

long line running all the way from New Orleans to Montreal. It was a vague and undetermined line, nowhere fixed by treaty, but everywhere subject to the arbitrament of war. To guard their possessions the French erected a chain of some sixty fortresses along this line. The general position and direction of this chain are marked by the sites of the towns or cities of New Orleans, Natchez, Vincennes, Fort Wayne, Toledo, Detroit, Ogdensburg, and Montreal.

Thus at the moment when George Washington entered upon his public career the contact between New France and the English



George Washington

GEORGE WASHINGTON

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colonies had just been completed all along the line. France hoped to establish in the interior of North America a Catholic and despotic empire after the pattern of the old régime in the mother country; and she had made up her mind that the sway of the English race in America must be confined to the narrow strip of territory between the Atlantic and the Alleghenies. All of the continent west of this mountain range was to become a new France, and no English colonist must be allowed to cross the barrier. The struggle between the two great rivals was thus extended over the whole country, so that Virginia began to play a foremost part in it. For the first time the English colonies, north and south, began to act in concert against a common foe; and in overthrowing the enemy they first began to feel their own strength when united. Out of this great war immediately grew the disputed questions which formed the occasion of the American Revolution. The causes having been long at work, the development of the crisis was sudden and prodigious. Men old

enough to vote in town meeting at the time of Braddock's defeat were not yet fifty when Cornwallis surrendered his army at Yorktown. But in passing from 1755 to 1781 we enter a new world, and the man who did more than any other toward bringing about this wonderful change is George Washington, the modest, brave, far-sighted, iron-willed, high-minded general and statesman, whose fame is one of the most precious possessions of the human race.

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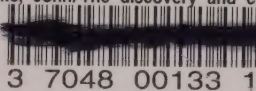
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